

**A Public Sector Model for Governance, Leadership
and Management Development:
The Namibian Case**

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Declaration

By submitting this dissertation electronically, I declare that the entirety of the work contained therein is my own, original work, that I am the sole author thereof (save to the extent explicitly otherwise stated), that reproduction and publication thereof by Stellenbosch University will not infringe any third party rights and that I have not previously in its entirety or in part submitted it for obtaining any qualification.

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Date

Summary

The repositioning of public service training or management development institutes (MDIs) as they relate to governance and improved service delivery has been the focus of a number of studies largely conducted by various international organisations. Unlike these studies, which focus broadly on the importance and necessity of public service training as part of the reform agenda, and despite national differences, these public service training institutes (PSTIs) or MDIs all experience common challenges around sustainability, relevance, governance and institutional arrangements.

This study builds on the outcome of these previous studies' findings by drawing on organisation and management theories to investigate the changing patterns of governance, management and leadership development with a specific focus on the Namibian public sector. Using a multiple case study approach alongside Grounded Theory Methodology, three case MDIs from across the Commonwealth are examined and subjected to a comparative analysis. The outcome of analysis is a normative model which is validated through two Delphi rounds. The model is then applied to the Namibian case, the Namibia Institute of Public Administration and Management (NIPAM) to assess its relevance and shortcomings and to ultimately contribute towards a public sector learning governance culture.

Opsomming

Die herposisionering van openbare diensopleiding of -bestuursontwikkelinginstitute (BOI's) soos hulle verband hou met die regering en verbeterde dienslewering was al die fokus van 'n aantal studies wat meestal deur verskeie internasionale organisasies onderneem is. Anders as hierdie studies wat breedweg op die belangrikheid en noodsaaklikheid van openbare diensopleiding as deel van die hervormingsagenda gefokus het, en ten spyte van nasionale verskille, deel hierdie openbare diensopleidingsinstitute (ODOI's) of BOI's uitdagings met betrekking tot volhoubaarheid, relevansie, regering en institusionele reëlins.

Hierdie studie bou voort op die bogenoemde studies se navorsingsbevindings deur van organisasie- en bestuursteorieë gebruik te maak om die veranderende patrone van regerings-, bestuur- en leieskapsontwikkeling te ondersoek met 'n spesifieke fokus op die Namibiese openbare sektor. Drie BOI's van regoor die Statebond is ondersoek en aan 'n vergelykende analise onderwerp deur van 'n veelvoudige gevallestudiebenadering met gegronde teoriemetodologie gebruik te maak. Die resultaat van die analise is 'n normatiewe model wat deur twee Dephi-rondes bevestig is. Die model is vervolgens op die Namibiese gevallestudie, die Namibian Institute of Public Administration and Management (NIPAM), toegepas om die relevansie en tekortkominge daarvan te bepaal en uiteindelik by te dra tot 'n openbare sektor-leerregeringskultuur.

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Dedication

To my daughters, Kathryn and Czarina: *amare et sapere vix deo conceditur.*

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List of Abbreviations

3PM	3P model of Administration (India)
7S	McKinsey 7S Framework
AC	Academic Committee
ACCPAC	Accounting and Financial Management Software
ALO	Adaptive Leadership and Organisational (Model)
ANC	African National Congress
APARs	Annual Performance Appraisal Reports
ASCI	Administrative Staff College of India
ASTD	American Standards for Training and Development
AU	African Union
AUC	African Union Commission
BPST	Bureau of Parliamentary Standards
CAFRAD	Le Centre Africain de Formation et de Recherche Administratives pour le Développement
CAPAM	Commonwealth Association of Public Administration and Management
CD	Compact disc
CDP	Capacity Development Programme
CEO	Chief Executive Officer
CFO	Chief Finance Officer
CGBC	Central Government Business Centre
CIP	Compulsory Induction Programme
CMPS	Centre for Management and Policy Studies
CPD	Continuous Professional Development
CRO	Chief Regional Officer
CSL	Civil Service Learning
DED	Deputy Executive Director
DG	Director General
DG HR	Director General of Human Resources

DHRPD	Directorate Human Resource Planning and Development
DPADM	Division of Public Administration and Development Management
DPSA	Department of Public Service and Administration
DVD	Digital video disc
ED	Executive Director
EDP	Executive Development Programme
EFMD	European Foundation for Management Development
ENA	École Nationale d'Administration
ERP	Enterprise Resource Planning
ETSIP	Education and Training Sector Improvement Programme
EU	European Union
EXCO	Executive Committee
FFF	Facilitator Feedback Form
FP	Foundation Programme
GC	Governing Council
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GIMPA	Ghana Institute of Management and Public Administration
GLP	Government Leadership Programme
GTM	Grounded Theory Methodology
HDI	Human Development Index
HE	Higher Education
HEI	Higher Education Institution
HPP	Harambee Prosperity Plan
HR	Human Resources
HRD	Human Resources Development
HRDP	Human Resources Development Plan
HRM	Human Resources Management
IACC	International Anti-Corruption Conference
IAS	India All Services
IASIA	International Association of Schools and Institutes of Administration

ICT	Information Communications Technology
IFRS	International Financial Reporting Standards
IIA	Institute of Internal Auditors
IIC	Independent Individual Contractors
IIMS	Integrated Information Management System
ILO	International Labour Organisation
IMF	International Monetary Fund
IPE	Institute for Public Enterprises
IPM	Institute of Personnel Management
IPMA	Institute for Personnel Management and Administration
IPPR	Institute for Public Policy Research
ISD	Instructional Systems Design
ISO	International Organisation for Standardisation
IT	Information Technology
ITEC	Indian Technical and Economic Cooperation
KPI	Key Performance Indicator
LA	Local Authority
LBSNAA	Lal Bahadur Shastri Academy of Administration
LD	Learning and Development
LDF	Learning and Development Framework
MANCO	Management Committee
M&E	Monitoring and Evaluation
MCTP	Mid-Career Training Programme
MD	Management Development
MDI	Management Development Institute
MDIs	Management Development Institutes
MIRCO	Ministry of International Relations and Cooperation
MMDP	Middle Management Development Programme
MoA	Memorandum of Agreement
MP	Member of Parliament
MPE	Ministry of Public Enterprises

MPSA	Minister for the Public Service and Administration
MSP	Managed Service Provider
MTEF	Medium-Term Expenditure Framework
MURD	Ministry of Urban and Rural Development
NASPAA	National Association of Schools of Public Affairs and Administration
NBC	Namibian Broadcasting Corporation
NCHE	National Council for Higher Education
NDP	National Development Plan
NDP4	National Development Plan 4
NDP5	National Development Plan 5
NEPAD	New Partnership for Africa's Development
NHIES	Namibia Household Income and Expenditure Survey
NHRP	National Human Resources Plan
NIPAM	Namibia Institute of Public Administration and Management
NIRD	National Institute of Rural Development
NPC	National Planning Commission
NPG	New Public Governance
NPM	New Public Management
NQA	Namibia Qualifications Authority
NQF	Namibia Qualifications Framework
NSDS	National Skills Development Strategy
NSG	National School of Government
NSG:UK	National School of Government: United Kingdom
NSI	Namibian Standards Institute
NTA	Namibia Training Authority
NUST	Namibia University of Science and Technology
ODA	Official Development Assistance
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
O/M/A	Offices, Ministries and Agencies
OPM	Office of the Prime Minister

PAI	Public Administration Institute
PALAMA	Public Administration Leadership And Management Academy
PAR	Performance Appraisal Reports
PE	Public Enterprise
PMDS	Performance Management Development System
PMS	Performance Management System
PPGP	Personnel, Public Grievances & Pension
PSC	Public Service Commission
PSETA	Public Service Education and Training Association
PSSR	Public Service Staff Rules
PSTF	Public Service Training Forum
PSTI	Public Service Training Institute
R&D	Research and Development
RC	Regional Council
RAC	Research Advisory Committee
REQ	Reaction Evaluation Questionnaire
RFD	Results Framework Document
RLGBC	Regional and Local Government Business Centre
RSA	Republic of South Africa
SADCC	Southern African Development Committee Council
SALGA	South African Local Government Association
SAMDI	South African Management Development Institute
SAQA	South African Qualification Authority
SAT	Systems Approach to Training
SBS	Southern Business School
SDG	Sustainable Development Goal
SDP	Supervisory Development Programme
Skype	Telecommunications Application Software
SMDP	Senior Management Development Programme
SMS	Senior Management Service
SOE	State-owned Enterprise

SOEBC	State-owned Enterprise Business Centre
SOP	Standard Operating Procedure
SPL	School of Public Leadership
SWAPO	South West African People's Organisation
T&D	Training and Development
TDB	Training and Development Board
TNA	Training Needs Assessment
TOT	Training Of Trainer
TTA	Training Trading Account
TVET	Technical, Vocational Education and Training
UK	United Kingdom
UN	United Nations
UNAM	University of Namibia
UNDESA	United Nations Department for Economic and Social Affairs
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNECA	United Nations Economic Commission for Africa
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
US	United States
USA	United States of America
VET	Vocational Education and Training
WBI	World Bank Institute
WSP	Workplace Skills Plan
WTO	World Trade Organization

“The loss of the stable state means that our society and all of its institutions are in continuous processes of transformation. We cannot expect new stable states that *will endure for our own lifetimes. We must learn to understand, guide, influence and manage these transformations. We must make the capacity for undertaking them integral to ourselves and to our institutions. We must, in other words, become adept at learning. We must become able not only to transform our institutions, in response to changing situations and requirements; we must invent and develop institutions which are ‘learning systems’, that is to say, systems capable of bringing about their own continuing transformation*” (Schön, 1973:28).

Chapter 1: Introduction and Overview

“Human beings are unique among all living organisms in that their primary adaptive specialisation lies not in some particular physical form or skill or fit in an ecological niche, but rather in identification with the process of adaptation itself – in the process of learning. We are thus the learning species, and our survival depends on our ability to adapt not only in the reactive sense of fitting into the physical and social worlds but in the proactive sense of creating and shaping those worlds” (Kolb, 1984:1).

1.1. Introduction

This is a study of public service training or management development institutes (MDIs) as they relate to governance. Although there are considerable differences in the design of these institutions, there is a convergence towards embracing common elements. The emergence of a competitive global knowledge economy, ideas of New Public Governance (NPG), and administrative reform have influenced the discourse on capacity development. Unlike earlier studies, which focus broadly on the importance and necessity of public service training as part of the reform agenda, and despite national differences, these public service training institutes (PSTIs) or MDIs all share common challenges around sustainability, relevance, governance and institutional arrangements.

The study builds on these studies but focuses on organisations’ internal characteristics, thus contributing to a deeper understanding of the changing governance across MDIs. The harsh economic challenges facing many of these institutes call for less reliance on governments and a need to reposition themselves. To investigate the power shifts and interplay of stakeholder relationships, the study draws on organisation and management theories to investigate the changing patterns of governance management and leadership development, particularly with regard to the Namibian public sector.

The study explores how MDIs develop strategies in order to cope with changes in their institutional environment, how they implement these strategies in their structures and

processes, and how they design systems to direct and shape individuals within these systems. So far, comparably few efforts have been made to look into the governance and institutional setup of these MDIs from a leadership and management perspective.

Using a combination of grounded theory methodology (GTM), a literature review is undertaken to describe recurrent themes, patterns and variations of public sector management and leadership development (Charmaz, 2006:2-8). Second, using the case study approach, the emerging findings of the literature review are used to develop a normative model of governance, management and leadership development. The intention of the study is to advance further research in this area by gathering high-level public sector and government officials, academics and individuals who have an interest in the dynamics of governance for MDIs. Against this background, the next section provides an overview of the current chapter and the subsequent chapters of the dissertation.

This initial chapter provides the context of governance, management and leadership development for the study. First, the challenges of governance, management and leadership development are briefly highlighted to introduce the research focus, research problem, research question and objectives of the study. The assumptions and worldview situating the research and the theoretical perspective are then explained. Following this, the methodological approach, the rationale of the study, the methodology, the data collection methods and the data analysis methods are provided. The significance of the research and its proposed contribution to the field of public policy and administration are also indicated. Finally, the chapter closes with a synopsis of the chapters in the dissertation. The next section introduces the background to the study, the rationale and the problem statement.

1.2 Background

My interest in this work was initially inspired by the introductory quotation of this chapter which urges that all institutions that undergo change should also aspire to become “learning systems” as part of their transformation (Schön, 1973:28). Similarly, on the role of the business school with regard to developing leadership and management capacity to

facilitate change, the then president of the European Foundation for Management Development (EFMD) emphasised the need for new management and business models to play a bigger and proactive role not only in transforming the economy, but also in developing leadership thinking and qualities (Van Schaik, 1996:14). Furthermore, he added that in addition to the technical competencies, managers and leaders should be adept at improvisation to survive the changing environment (Van Schaik, 1996:14).

Equally, at the International Anti-Corruption Conference (IACC), one of the presenters stated that “traditional paradigms of governance are outdated and do not seem to keep up with the challenges of globalisation” (Eigen, 2016). In order to explore these aspects further, using a grounded theory approach (Charmaz, 2006:2-8), the study seeks to establish that the creation of a desired future public sector, which would later contribute towards a desired future society, depends on the capacity of political and public and private sector leaders. More precisely, employing grounded theory highlights a research gap and the inspiration for a new Management Development Institute (MDI) model aimed at enhancing governance and developing innovative and responsible leadership for an efficient Namibian public sector. It is my position that the role of an MDI in the public sector is similar to that of the role of business schools in making a positive impact on the environmental, societal and economic state of the world. Similarly, in the new global economy, the study of management and leadership development are central to the field of public policy and administration in advancing the good governance agenda.

Being employed at the African continent’s newest MDI, I have been privileged to embark on an exploratory and descriptive journey by contrasting and comparing the trends, challenges, patterns of operation and ideas in the discourse of management and leadership development by sharing these experiences and at the same time depict a few of these cases. Although the cases detailed in the dissertation focus on the intended outcomes of public sector reform and public sector improvement, there is a paucity of information on an appropriate MDI model and a record of successful MDIs. Namibia is no exception when it comes to this lack of information. Across the literature, emerging themes of public sector MDIs are broadly similar to their counterparts in the business schools. Knowing that there was already a substantial body of work not only on

management development but also on leadership, the study aims to explore this discourse type further in a Namibian governance context, ultimately seeking to make a practical contribution.

The literature review and the case studies illustrate that the study of management and leadership development has become important, if not critical, in advancing the good governance agenda. In addition, several authors concur that the one-size-does-not-fit-all approach be considered in view of various contexts and challenges unique to particular countries (Ogiogio & Ongile, 2002:86; Ayeni, 2014:2). Despite the recognition of the importance of the need to adopt common training standards for the public sector (Kolishnichenko, 2005:2) and accreditation (Commonwealth Foundation, 2014:5; McFarland & Kang, 2013:24), it appears that a holistic model for the Namibian context is absent.

From a public service reform perspective, the literature indicates that there has been limited uptake of participants of MDIs and much less training transfer (Agere, 1999:3; Agere, 1999a:10; Ayee, 2008:24; Bertucci, 2007:3; Management Development Council, 2010:3). The literature also revealed that the need to adopt a context-specific model to provide better and relevant services was also seen as pressing since the performance of these institutions are considered to be “well below standard [...] [and] have failed to influence development policy and public sector management practices” (Ayeni, n.d.:3). As a result, “their contribution to the cross-fertilisation of ideas between the public and private sectors is minimal” (Ayeni, n.d.:3).

For instance, Professor of Political Science, Joseph Ayee, also an African expert in this field argues that the extent to which the public service is responsive to the public will depend on how MDIs train their leaders and managers (Ayee, 2008:33). This is perceived to be a demanding and arduous task which requires responsive, current and innovative training curricula, methods and techniques to be employed across MDIs, particularly in Africa (Ayee, 2008:34). Therefore, although the emerging challenges, findings and solutions have been proposed over the last thirty years, these lessons have not been implemented. This reality confirms Rosenbaum’s (2007) statement that unless MDIs

are equipped to develop capacity across their respective public services to handle new and increasingly complex governance challenges, they will fail to make the desired impact and will become irrelevant (Rosenbaum, 2007:23).

1.3 Rationale

A search of the literature revealed few studies, particularly in relation to strengthening good governance, which document best practice examples of MDIs. In addition, no study on public sector training and development in Namibia has resulted in the development of an appropriate, context-specific MDI model to support governance, management and leadership development.

There is a growing body of literature that recognises the importance of management and leadership development for the public service and their role in promoting good governance (Clarke, 1998:399; Kiragu, 2002:5; Zyani, 2002:24; Charlesworth et al., 2003:32; Batley & Larbi, 2004:233; Saasa, 2007:405; Ayee, 2008:12; Savi & Randama-Liv, 2013:76). However, many of these studies suggest that the failures of these public sector institutions responsible for management and leadership development are attributed to the fact that their approaches are not necessarily embedded within the national reform agenda. Additionally, studies which have been conducted by international organisations, such as the UN, the Commonwealth and the World Bank, provide an abundance of best international practices and models of capacity development (World Bank, 2012:2; CAPAM, 2005:8; Bertucci, 2006:195; CAPAM, 2007:15).

Similarly, there are numerous sets of ideas surrounding this study, in particular the adoption of a common set of public sector standards for management and leadership development internationally (International Association of Schools and Institutes of Administration, 2008:3-24; Kolisnichenko, 2005:16). However, very few countries have adopted and embraced these common standards or reflected any improvements on either the level of leadership, management, quality of governance or service delivery after adoption. To this end, a former South African Minister of Public Service and Administration has stated that these one-size-fits-all approaches place very little emphasis on the unique

contexts within which each MDI finds itself (Fraser-Moleketi, 2009:xiii). Similarly, these international models often appear to result in poor implementation or non-implementation.

For example, although many of the failures and challenges of MDIs have been documented, there is an absence of empirical studies to illustrate and verify the adaptation of a working model from one country to the next. Hence, a systematic understanding of how an MDI contributes to good governance, not only in Namibia but also across Africa, is still lacking. Therefore, this study provides an opportunity to explore, describe and develop a working model of governance, leadership and management as a sustainable option towards transforming public services, in this case the Namibian Public Sector. This is explained in the section that follows.

1.4 Research Problem, Aims and Objectives

Following the study's point of departure in the previous section, this section outlines the research problem, the research question, the research aims and the research objectives. With the last two decades witnessing a renewed and growing interest in improving the quality of governance and government service delivery in virtually every region of the world, the literature review reveals that a gap exists between the delivery of capacity development interventions of MDIs and the recipients of these interventions. Hence, the problem which this study seeks to address is the gap between the outcomes and impact that MDIs are expected to make in respect of governance, management and leadership capacity. In answering this problem, it is expected that the solutions generated through this study will assist the Namibian government and the public sector to address issues around governance and service delivery.

Although there have been international attempts and efforts to establish institutional standards and frameworks, the mechanisms by which these MDIs have implemented these models have not been established. Moreover, the generalisability of the published studies on this issue is problematic, as they do not appear to sufficiently address the management and leadership capacity gaps to improve performance and service delivery

and to contribute to policymaking, innovation and good governance in the public services on which they are focused.

With this background, and within the broad context of the major issues facing governance, leadership and management development, the study therefore seeks to provide an answer to the following research question: What kind of governance, management and leadership development model is required for the Namibian Public Sector? This question is underpinned by seven sub-questions which, when answered, address the research aims and objectives as discussed in the next section.

In order to answer the research question stated in the previous paragraph, the first sub-question asks: What is the current context and related challenges to governance, leadership and management development? This is preceded by the second sub-question: What are the current conceptual and theoretical frameworks defining governance, leadership and management development? Thirdly, what are the international best practices informing governance, leadership and management development? This is important in terms of asking the fourth sub-question: What is the current reality in terms of the current policies, legislation, and institutionalisation of governance, leadership and management development? Fifthly, the answers to these sub-questions will provide an opportunity to provide answers to the question: What are the requirements for a governance, leadership and management development model to transform a twenty-first-century public sector? The sixth sub-question provides an opportunity to reflect on the following question: How does the current institutional setup in Namibia meet the requirements of the ideal model in the previous sub-question? The final and seventh sub-question focuses on the question: What recommendations and conclusions can be reached?

Given the research question and the supporting sub-areas of investigation stated in the previous paragraph, the aim of this study is to propose a new model for governance, management and leadership development by comparing various existing models across the Commonwealth. Specifically, the study is supported by seven corresponding objectives. The first objective seeks to broadly describe the related challenges

surrounding the context of governance, leadership and management development. The second objective focusses on the conducting of a review of the literature and conceptual frameworks on governance, leadership and management development and their relationship to capacity development. This objective is followed by the third objective which is to provide a comparative analysis of international best practices in order to uncover similarities and common challenges. The fourth objective looks at describing the current reality and institutional setup that would best meet the requirements of providing capacity development in the areas of governance, leadership and management development as a basis for validating whether continued research (in the context of public service reform) is warranted. This objective will inform the fifth objective which is to develop a model for governance, leadership and management development to guide the transformation of a twenty-first-century public sector. This model will be applied to the Namibian case and meet the requirements of the sixth objective. The seventh, and final objective of this study is to make a set of recommendations for both policy and science to advance the good governance agenda. The remaining part of this chapter proceeds to explain the worldview, the methodology and data collection methods and concludes with an overview of the chapters which follow.

1.5 Worldview

Given the multidimensional nature of the investigation, certain beliefs and philosophical assumptions, referred to as a worldview, inform the study (Creswell, 2011:39). The worldview that is used in this dissertation is a constructivist worldview. The multiple inferences of various individuals shaped by their own interactions and experiences and their own subjective understanding of the phenomenon under investigation accordingly contribute to the essence of constructivism. In terms of this worldview, research is approached from a narrow and individual perspective to discern larger and inclusive patterns and finally to determine broader constructions of meaning that can be generalised to the rest of the population (Creswell, 2011:40). Hence, the nature of reality (ontology) is viewed from many different perspectives, while the relationship between the researcher and the subject being studied (epistemology) espouses closeness in obtaining information and data. This epistemological departure point requires a degree of objectivity;

hence, it is a sound approach to rely on a particular theoretical lens or perspective. This is explained in the next section.

1.6 Theoretical Perspective

When the research questions have been answered and the results of the objectives integrated, the outcome of this dissertation will be a normative model through which all the various internal and external factors influencing the NIPAM's ability to deliver may be assessed and explained. The most suitable theoretical approach in explaining the complex, multidimensional study of governance, management and leadership development and consequently the establishment of the NIPAM is to separate the internal and external factors that affect its operations and functioning. These include: the broader and international macro environment (political, economic, social, technological, legal and historical underpinnings) of management and leadership development; the objectives, mandate and scope of the NIPAM; its relationship with and to the public service reform agenda; and the expectations of the Namibian government for NIPAM to deliver on its mandate to supply the public sector with competent employees to improve service delivery through analysing its micro-environment or institutional setup. Although the focus of this study is on MDIs and their relationship with the State, the theoretical assumptions in terms of public administration, policy making and the role they are expected to play in improving service delivery are embedded in the discipline.

This thinking is influenced by the works of Van Wart, Hondeghem and Schwella (2015) who maintain that the development of management and leadership competencies across the public sector is critical in order to adapt to the changing role of government. With the advent of public service reform and the evolution of the public administration field to adopting NPG principles, the set of competencies for the public sector have broadened to include interacting and engaging a number of stakeholders in the process of policy making and implementation (Van Wart, et.al, 2015:4-11). As such, the manner in which public servants obtain the requisite competencies to support these changes rests on their qualifications, experience and where they obtain their training. Hence, there is a special focus in this study on how MDIs are effectively able to support reform efforts.

It is important to mention that the objective of this dissertation is not to become enmeshed in the detailed activities of the NIPAM or to assess its value, but rather to conduct an analysis based on generalisations and comparisons of other MDIs and to apply these generalisations to NIPAM. Given the absence of a well-defined and proven model of governance, management and leadership development for the public sector, it is thus justified to develop one. Such a model should employ criteria to single out the important variables that can be generalised to other MDIs and to uniquely position the role of these institutions given their unique national contexts in being theoretically sound and practically relevant at the same time. The dissertation therefore advocates the use of the grounded theory approach in this study. Furthermore, the use of grounded theory as a social science theory will give rise to a reconstructed framework of governance, management and leadership development. The model will be developed based on qualitative data analysis. This means that the theory or the model itself will be grounded in the data.

To further guide and enrich the research process, the McKinsey 7S Model is introduced. In practice, this model has been operationalised in many ways, mostly in change management interventions but highlighting the importance of coordination (Peters & Waterman, 1982:26-42). The McKinsey or 7S model illustrates the importance of alignment in seven interrelated areas to achieve organisational effectiveness. There are seven elements, which all begin with the letter 's' and denote the structure, strategy, skills, staff, (leadership) style, systems and shared values.

It has been accepted that the model adheres to the following steps in sequence. The first step looks at assessing the situation in terms of establishing an organisation as it exists in the current time frame and reality. Questions to explore are as follows: Where is the organisation at this point in time? What is the existing vision, mission, mandate and strategy applied in reality? How is the organisation performing? The second step is to establish the desired outcome of the organisation in terms of the future. The following questions provide guidance in the assessment: Where does the organisation want to be in the future? What are the ultimate goals and the strategies to be adopted to get there? What is the competitive advantage of the organisation?

Following the answers to the emerging questions, a model is developed during the third step, based on the existing situation. A second model is further developed based on the future of the organisation in step four. During this process, all seven aspects and their interdependent relationships with a view to achieving the future objectives of the organisation are highlighted as part of the sixth step. Finally, in the last step, both models are compared and reassessed in order to create a unique strategy to adopt in the future.

These theoretical principles and the McKinsey 7S framework have guided and informed this dissertation alongside the use of grounded theory. Studies conducted in the grounded theory tradition develop a theory that is grounded in the views of the participants (Strauss & Corbin, 2008:99). The McKinsey 7S was not used as a framework until after the new model was developed. Thus, the use of the grounded theory allow for the generation of a new model based on the qualitative analysis and only then is it compared to the McKinsey 7S model to explore similarities and differences. As a result, the researcher is not biased and unnecessarily tied to the existing theory, which, in turn, allows the new model to emerge from the participants' views.

The comparison to the existing McKinsey 7S model inform the final stages of the development of the model and serves as a means of consistently evaluating and subjecting the process to be both reliable and valid. The next section describes the methodological approach, situating the research as a qualitative study. Figure 1.1 provides an illustration of the various levels of research guiding the study.

1.7 Methodological Approach

Qualitative research is described by Babbie and Mouton (2001:270) as research which adopts an insider's or emic approach in studying a particular social phenomenon. With its principal goal of describing and understanding, rather than explaining behaviour, the qualitative approach should be considered when studying social action within a specific context. This view is echoed by Silverman (2014:10) who states that adopting the qualitative paradigm when conducting research involves the deliberate utilisation of a

method which is appropriate to a research question and is based on providing answers to a specific problem.

The study of governance, management and leadership development relates to the Namibian public sector context and, as such, adopts an idiographic perspective, hence limiting broad generalisations to a larger theoretical population of other governance, management and leadership development institutes in other countries (Babbie & Mouton, 2001:270). Furthermore, the authors contend that the use of qualitative methods advocates an inductive process, giving rise to new theories and perspectives (Babbie & Mouton, 2001:270). Unlike quantitative research, qualitative research allows for the utilisation of the researcher as the “main instrument” in studying social action within naturalistic settings, hence preserving the “natural and normal course of events” (Silverman, 2014:11).

Quantitative research, in turn, emphasises experimentation and the control of variables within an artificial environment in order to provide explanations about research investigations (Babbie & Mouton, 2001:270). Thus, the features associated with qualitative research provided the researcher with sufficient justification to follow the qualitative research paradigm. Finally, the research strategy guiding qualitative research provides for an open-ended and flexible methodological approach, often drawing on multiple sources of data collection (Babbie & Mouton, 2001:297).

To elaborate on the research strategy, the purpose of this section is to provide an overview of the research methodology utilised in this dissertation which in turn focuses on three interdependent aspects. These facets are the normative, empirical and strategic perspectives as indicated in the previous section and collectively provide a roadmap for this dissertation.

The methodological framework also makes provision for the use of the McKinsey 7S as a tool to analyse the three experiences of the three countries and cases of governance, management and leadership development from their respective public sectors. The basis

of these comparisons will inform the development of a framework for governance management and leadership development against which the Namibian case will be analysed.

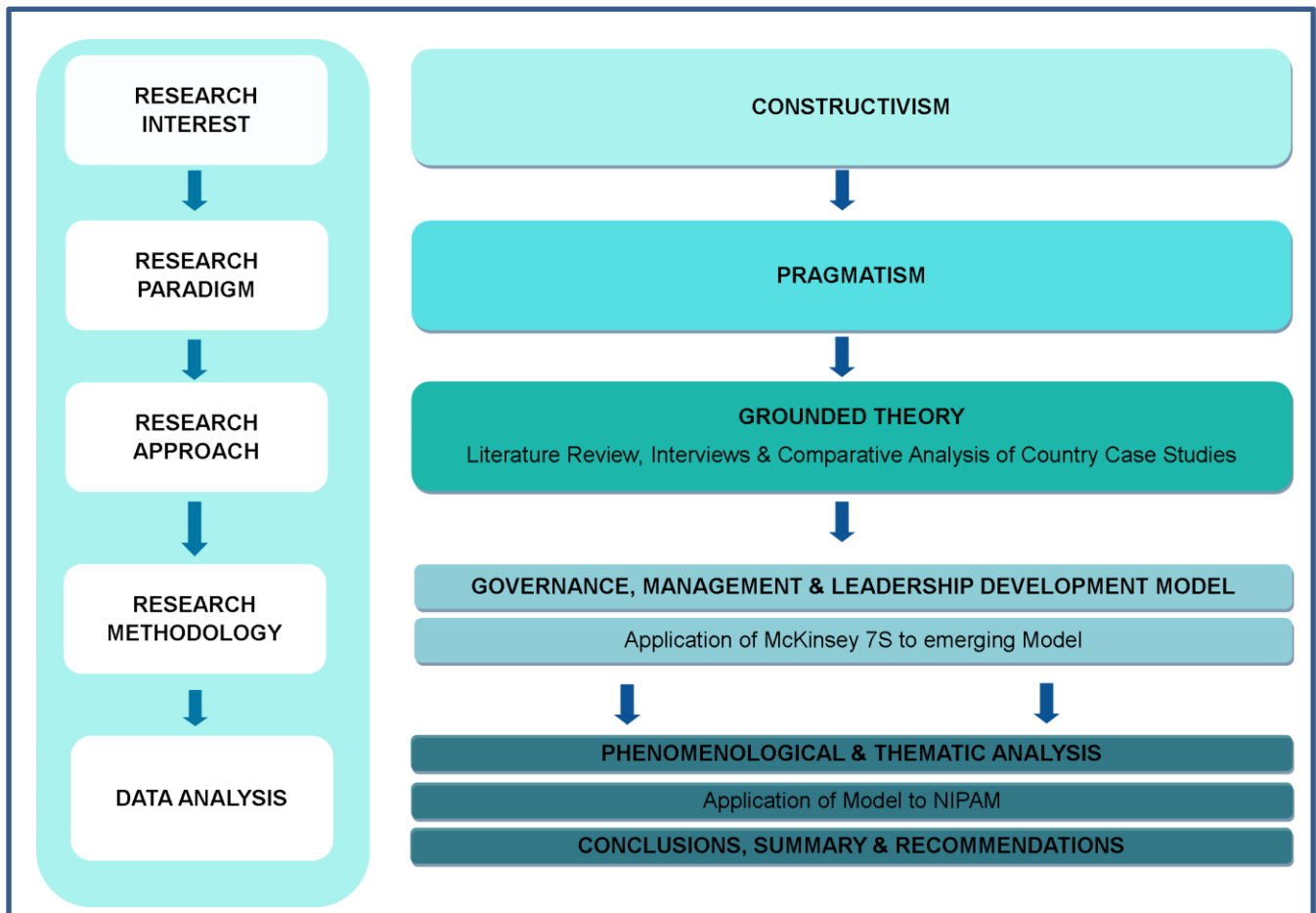


Figure 1.1: Methodological Framework (Adapted from Creswell, 2011:39).

Before embarking on research, the research problem is to be analysed by reviewing what other scholars have found in order to have a balanced and holistic view of the phenomenon under investigation. With this study advocating a qualitative approach, the data collection methods used, include the use of a combination of different techniques such as an initial review of current literature of the subject in the field, the use of grounded theory and case studies. The qualitative research methodology selected for this dissertation is a mixed methods approach, which triangulates the use of grounded theory with the case studies. These methods are explained in the next section.

1.7.1 Grounded Theory

Grounded theory is a method of qualitative inquiry in which a new theory is developed. It is an inductive method of theory development and is grounded in the views of the participants (Creswell, 2007:39; Strauss & Corbin, 2008:99). It was developed by Americans Barney Glaser and Anselm Strauss in the 1960s who utilised it largely to conduct research in the health sector. The revolutionary approach towards studying health sector issues in a qualitative manner during a time where most research adopted a largely quantitative worldview was a milestone for social science research. One of the main benefits of using grounded theory is that it allows for the creation of new theories consisting of interdependent concepts and ideas as opposed to merely applying theories. Similarly, the use of grounded theory aims largely to provide explanations with regard to a social phenomenon under investigation and in the process avoids merely generalising the findings of the study to a larger population (Charmaz, 2006:5).

The approaches used to collect data using grounded theory consist of conducting thorough interviews to supplement the more conventional and secondary forms of data collection and reliance on the literature in the field. The grounded theory approach is well matched for this study's research problem as an existing social science theory and is at the same time equally suited for expanding the research area of MDIs and the developmental state which emphasises the qualities and characteristics of economic growth and development. The prospect of generating new theories and hypotheses provides sufficient justification for the use of qualitative research with particular reference to the research problem under investigation (Babbie & Mouton, 2001:270). Finally, in the last part of this study, the McKinsey 7S model is utilised to enhance the new governance, management and leadership development model.

The use of grounded theory as a method of qualitative inquiry is deemed most suitable for the study since another key objective of this study is the generation and development of a new theory (Glaser, 1998:3). Grounded theory, as an existing social science theory, is well matched to the research problem highlighted in the previous parts in this chapter and to

the emerging question stated in the introduction: Given the number of years that have elapsed, have MDIs become learning organisations?

Furthermore, grounded theory is suitable in terms of adding to the research interests of governance, management and leadership development within the field of public policy and development studies. The prospect of generating new constructs which will, in turn, give rise to an emerging field of study is well suited to qualitative research and particularly the research problem (Glaser, 1998:50).

Given the broad overview of the three Commonwealth countries and their unique, but also similar contexts, there are many convincing reasons for conduct a systematic comparative analysis of MDIs across all three countries. Firstly, identifying these variables will provide a better understanding regarding the purpose of the existence of each MDI in its country. Exploring these variables may provide insight into both micro- and macro-level outcomes, immediate impacts and long-term effectiveness. Highlighting distinctions across MDIs is therefore an important step in developing a desired model. Secondly, identifying an MDI's unique features within its various country contexts helps in analysing key success factors, approaches and strategies. Thirdly, providing a systematic but detailed assessment of MDIs will assist governments in their quest for new approaches and in repositioning their respective MDIs. Fourthly and finally, these comparisons will help both practitioners, academics and "pracademics" alike.

Apart from the description of individual MDIs (accessed via the web, newsletters or journals), there has been no systematic investigation into what distinguishes one MDI from another in terms of, amongst others: the context; the institutional setup; the programme objectives; the target group of participants; the programme length; staffing; types of activities; programme design; learning methods used; funding; quality assurance; management; and governance arrangements. Similarly, there have been few attempts made to address whether any of these issues are evaluated or whether the MDIs are in fact learning organisations based on their aims and objectives. Hence, using GTM, this study attempts to compare and detail these elements in an exploratory yet systematic approach which is explained in the next section.

1.7.2 The use of Grounded Theory Methodology in Model Development

The data collection and analysis part of this dissertation adopts a cyclical process, which is characteristic of GTM, by using earlier data and results in providing an emerging model. Proponents of the GTM advance the idea of creating new theories comprising interconnected concepts and ideas as opposed to testing existing theories (Strauss & Corbin, 1990:35). Thus, research using the GTM focuses not on seeking representativeness for statistical generalisability but on explaining phenomena based on empirical findings. Data collected through the interviews, observations and notes taken as part of GTM consists of the use of both primary and secondary sources and provides guidelines for data collection and analysis. In this study, primary data sources comprised the use of interviews while secondary sources consisted of obtaining information through existing documents and texts. Figure 1.2 illustrates this process, highlighting the utilisation of GTM through case studies.

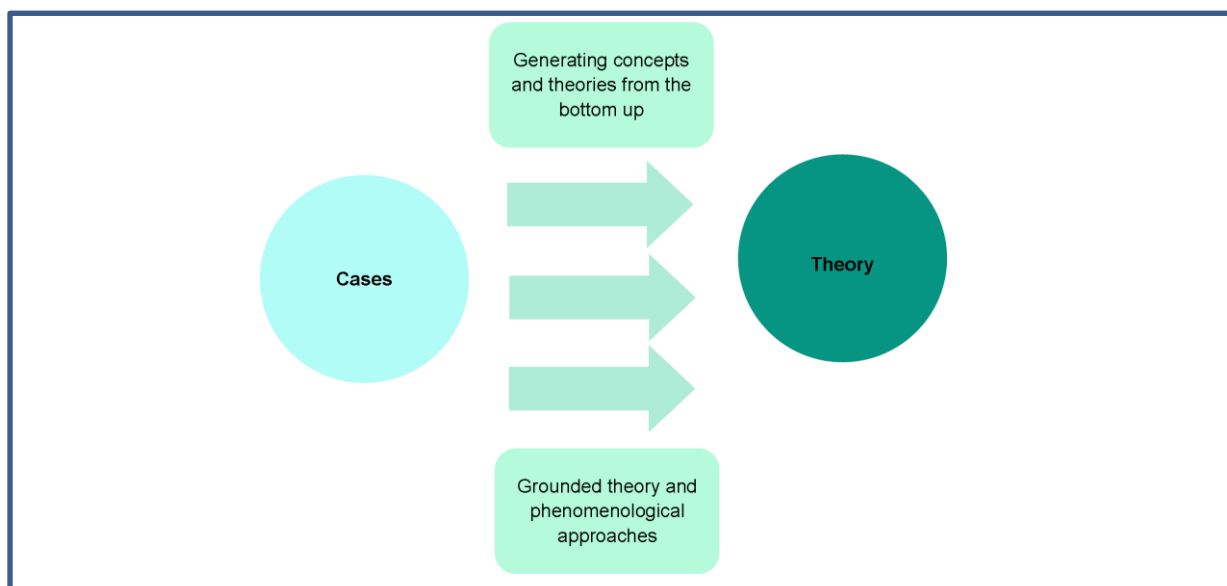


Figure 1.2: A Grounded Theory Approach to Case Studies (Rule & John, 2011:7)

Therefore, as a starting point, the process of data collection adopted an open, axial and selective coding approach. Strauss and Corbin (2008) indicate that the process of analysing the data immediately after an interview is a prerequisite for theoretical sampling which, in turn, is critical for theory development (Strauss & Corbin, 2008:28). Based on this, all the interviews were transcribed and coded immediately afterwards.

In addition, the Delphi technique constituting two rounds to ensure reliability and validity of the coded responses was used. The technique makes use of a group of experts in a particular field which then constitute a panel. For this study, the Delphi panel comprises experts sourced from the MDIs selected to establish consensus on the ideal model for a governance, management and leadership development institute to facilitate capacity development within the context of public sector settings, in this case the Namibia Institute of Public Administration and Management (NIPAM). This entire process is explained in the sections that follow.

1.7.3 Data Collection and Analysis using Grounded Theory

Grounded theory methodology largely makes use of purposive sampling, also referred to as theoretical sampling, where participants are selected according to criteria specified by the researcher and based on initial findings. Initial data analysis may highlight aspects which will need further investigation. This process of continuously exploring data is influenced by the constant evolution of theory development. Both the process of data collection and analysis take place in alternating sequences (Strauss & Corbin, 1990:35; Miles & Huberman, 1994:24). In order to apply the principles of theoretical sampling, it is incumbent on the researcher to decide on the best or optimal information-rich source of data to meet the needs for the study. In this regard, Strauss and Corbin (1990) recommend the use of memo writing in order to achieve the dual objectives of theoretical sampling and create an audit trail of the study for reference purposes. Finally, this iterative process continues until theoretical saturation is reached or until no new data emerges (Strauss & Corbin, 1990).

1.7.4 Interviews

In GTM, the use of questions in interviews should be as open-ended as possible to allow the interviewees to talk about what is of importance to them regarding a given context (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Hence, it is up to the researcher to identify significant themes by providing a conceptual label, known as a code. Several codes can be grouped into more abstract categories that will eventually form the basis for the theory being developed.

As background, it should be noted that, between 2014 and 2016, I was involved in a number of familiarisation and exchange visits to the National School of Government (NSG) in South Africa, both the Lal Bahadur Shastri National Academy of Administration (LBSNAA) and the Administrative Staff College of India (ASCI) in India, and, finally, the Civil Service Learning (CSL) Unit in the United Kingdom (UK). I was therefore, through the various interactions between these partner organisations, able to identify key respondents to interact with and in the process formed collegial relationships with them. These relationships provided opportunities to interact with and interview the respondents for this study through face-to-face discussions, emails, Skype calls, WhatsApp, short message services (SMS) and Facebook interactions. Having explained the use of these interactions as part of the data collection and analysis, it is useful to briefly explain the Delphi technique in the next section. This technique is another complementary method to enhance the validity and reliability of this study.

1.7.5 Delphi Technique

With the study advocating multiple sources of data sourced not only from annual reports, strategic plans, presentations, field notes, websites and interviews across the various case institutions, there is also an additional need to triangulate the findings through the use of another method (Yin, 2014:120). Triangulation follows the principle that case studies are seen to be more credible, convincing and accurate if the various sources of evidence and information to support the study converge. Thus, the convergence of various measures of the same phenomenon from different perspectives and social realities are confirmed in the research findings (Yin, 2014:121). This strengthens the construct validity of the case study (Yin, 2014:121).

In addition to the aforementioned multiple sources of data collection, the Delphi technique was also selected for this study in order to strengthen the construct validity of the findings. Initially utilised as a qualitative forecasting method developed by Olaf Helmer at the RAND Corporation in the mid 1960s, the Delphi technique is becoming a popular method in policy studies, particularly in Education (Winzenried, 1997:68; Adler & Ziglio,

1996:34). The technique makes use of a group of experts who may constitute a Delphi panel or group. There are a few key principles of using this approach. These are that the identities of the members of the Delphi panel may remain anonymous, the members of the panel are not necessarily geographically accessible to a researcher since they are also widely dispersed and the members of the panel may be employees of an organisation or are outside experts and specialists in their particular field.

The uniqueness of this technique is that when consultations with a Delphi group or panel are undertaken, there is no need for a consensus to be reached. Instead, the number of themes or opinions are then merely reduced. Briefly described, the process involves, firstly, establishing contact with the expert(s), followed by sending the experts the questionnaires or documents developed with the categories or themes. The next phase involves the analysis and summarisation of the questionnaires or documents received with the expert's comments. The process is repeated in various rounds until the data stabilises (Adler & Ziglio, 1996:34).

1.7.6 Concurrent data generation and analysis

Regarding the process of data collection and analysis, an iterative process of memo writing, transcribing, coding and model development in the grounded theory tradition is expected to result in a preliminary model or diagram, which will be shared with the participants who are expected to provide inputs (Strauss & Corbin, 1990:35; Yin, 2014:118). This process of constant adaptation and model evolution is similarly expected to continue until no new data is likely to emerge or that saturation is reached, finally culminating in a representative governance, management and leadership development model.

This iterative approach, also informed by the literature review and the interaction with the key staff of the MDIs across all three cases provides for the identification of preliminary categories. Based on these predetermined categories, a set of open-ended questions are constructed and form the basis of the semi-structured interview. Consequently, all open-ended interviews are transcribed verbatim and sent back to the respective staff and

participants for approval. To warrant the credibility and validity of the results, the data sources are subjected to triangulation (Yin, 2014:121; Rule & John, 2011:21) using the following secondary sources of evidence: website information sourced from the official web pages, journals and publications, annual reports, presentations, and other institutional materials.

Additionally, as part of the data analysis process, the documented information is sent back to the staff member or participant as part of the Delphi technique requesting supplementary information where required. The final model containing sets of information and data gleaned from this process are then coded and organised into categories as part of the comparative analysis. Finally, the final write-up of each case is shared with the case institutions for validation and each write-up simultaneously provides a final opportunity for inputs. This process has been described as following a multiple case study approach (adapted from Yin, 2014:60) and is depicted in Figure 1.3.

From the literature review, it is useful at this point to provide a brief description of the six principal categories that have been generated as part of the elements deserving attention for MDIs and that have also been derived from the case studies. Therefore, the explanation of the generated categories provide an overview of the context, the institutional setup and governance arrangements, organisational strategy, systems, culture, shared values and competencies. It is worthwhile to point out that when comparing these categories to the McKinsey 7 S model (Peters & Waterman, 1982:32), there are similarities pertaining to the strategy, structure, systems, staff, style, skills and shared values. However, if the seven elements of the 7S model are contrasted with the challenges outlined in chapter two, many of them are covered and fall within the categories and subsequent categories generated in this chapter.

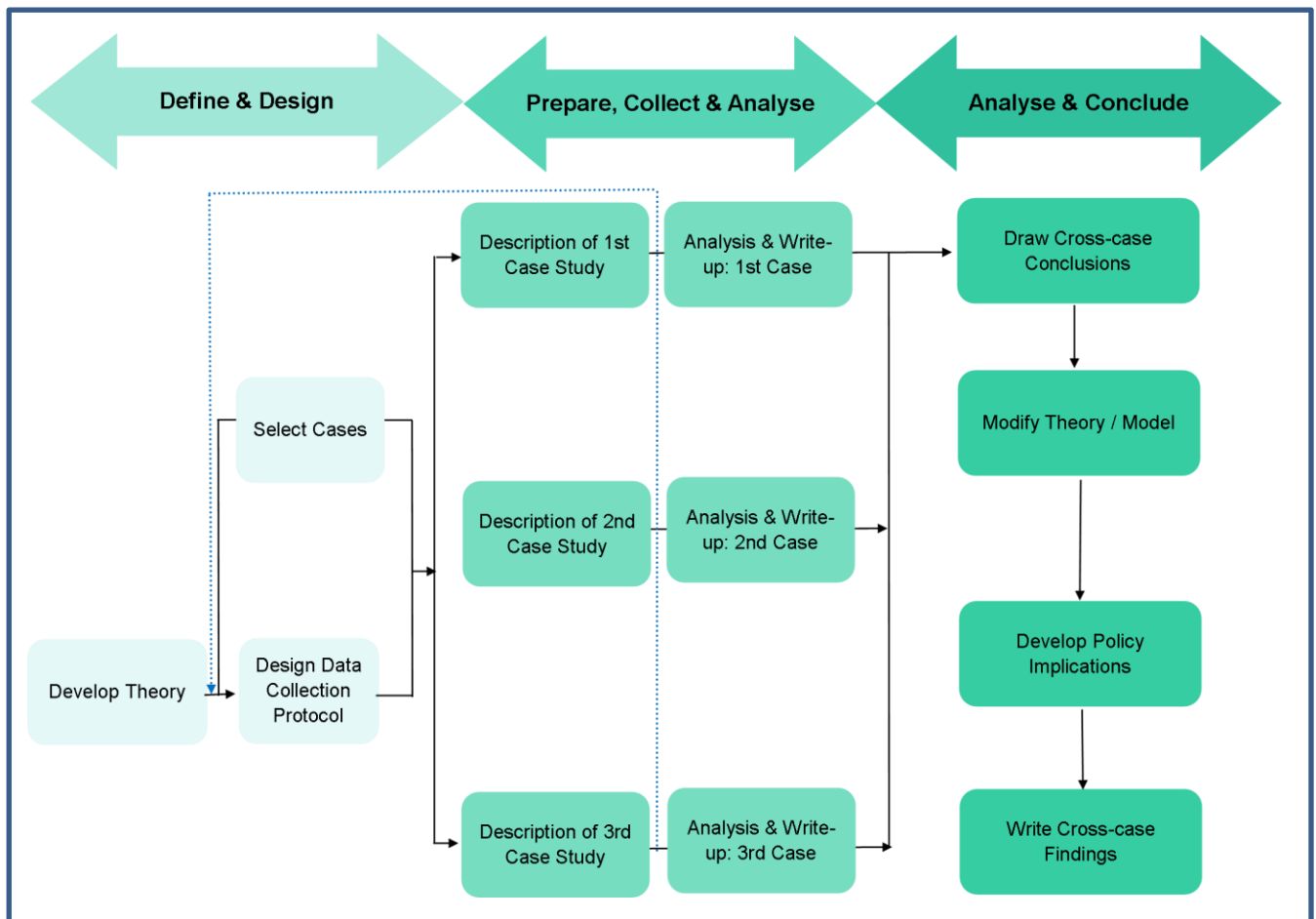


Figure 1.3: Multiple Case Study approach (Adapted from Yin, 2014:60)

For example, in terms of describing the context of each case, an analysis of the country and case institution provides insight into the political, economic, social, technological environmental and legal environment. Thus, the first category, namely context, underscores the importance of external conditions that are not within the control of the institution. Relating this to the policy and public sector reform challenges experienced by MDIs, it is possible that the choice of strategy when considering the factors in the external environment may contribute to optimal policy support for the MDIs and seen as integral to public sector reform (Niazi, 2011; Economic Commission for Africa, 2003:47).

Similarly, the second category, namely the institutional setup and governance arrangements, describe aspects pertaining to an institution's strategic purpose, that is, its vision, mission, objectives and position in relation to the public sector. Embedded within this is the third category, namely the operational strategy, which describes how the

organisation operates in relation to the high-level and strategic objectives. Rooted within the strategy is also a description of the services or value propositions the organisation makes to its clients. These aspects, which relate to the same category, encompass the challenges of marginalisation, funding and relevance experienced by MDIs (McLennan & Orkin, 2009:1028; Mhone, 2003:7; Bertucci, 2007:3; Haruna & Kannae, 2013: 509). Part of the institutional setup also includes the organisational design or the manner in which the organisation is organised in terms of function or role and includes the staff complement. Within this context, staff refers to the employees or human capital within the organisation.

The fourth category, namely organisational systems, describes the operational and technical infrastructure that staff utilise on a daily basis to accomplish their objectives. In addition, systems also refer to formal and informal procedures and systems that support the organisation's strategy and structure (Peters & Waterman, 1982:32). This category corresponds to the need and importance for MDIs to adopt common standards for public administration in terms of, for example, communication, quality assurance and recruitment of faculty or staff (Kolisnichenko, 2005:34; Rosenbaum & Kauzya, 2007:35).

The fifth category, namely organisational culture, contains elements of management and leadership within the organisation. While management style refers to the behavioural elements that the leaders within the organisation use to influence their interactions with its employees, it also shapes the culture within the organisation (Peters & Waterman, 1982:32). Furthermore, the fifth category also encompasses aspects which are influenced by the shared values of various individuals on all organisational levels. In turn, the shared values are seen to be guiding concepts and fundamental ideas around which a business is built (Peters & Waterman, 1982:32). Relating this to the challenges of MDIs in the literature review, much of the culture within the organisation and within leadership dynamics is based on the ideal profile of a leader and the extent to which the top leadership conforms or meets these expectations (Van Wart et al., 2015:13). Again, there are persistent leadership challenges across MDIs which require attention (Schwella, 1992:35; Mokgoro, 1992:30; Agere, 1999:6; Mishra, 1999:14).

Finally, the sixth and last category, namely organisational competencies, refers to the knowledge, skills and attitudes of individuals or staff within an organisation which collectively illustrate the distinctive competencies of the organisation and what the organisation does best (Peters & Waterman, 1982:32). Again, this issue is a prevailing challenge highlighted in the literature review and points towards the need for MDIs to develop responsive, adaptable leadership and management competencies for the future (Rosenbaum & Kauzya, 2007:35; McLennan & Orkin, 2009:1027).

This section has provided an overview of the GTM as well as the rationale for the selection of the case institutions from the Commonwealth. It is also argued that GTM allows for the use of multiple methods of collecting and analysing data and highlights the interview and the Delphi technique for both collecting and analysing data. A description of the categories generated as part of this process was briefly provided.

1.7.3 Case Study

The choice of the case study approach is deemed suitable for the purpose of this dissertation for the following reasons. Firstly, the field of governance, management and leadership development is broad and, thus, the use of the case study provides an opportunity to explore these aspects generally whilst at the same time also confining the study to a particular area or focus (Rule & John, 2011:7). Secondly, in the process of understanding a particular case, the researcher is able to provide a “thick, rich description” of events as they occur to inform the broader context of governance, management and leadership development. In other words, the use of the case study allows for the examination of complex phenomenon which would otherwise not be possible using either a survey or an experimental approach (Rule & John, 2011:19). Moreover, the relevance of the case study in investigating systems, individuals, programmes, events and other interrelated phenomena pertaining to organisations makes it particularly appropriate for this study (Yin, 2009:15).

The case study approach also advocates the development of theoretical insights stemming from a grounded theory approach which is developed from the case itself or validates the

theory or model of the case. This process of validation thus offers a certain degree of generalisability or transferability in increasing the probability that the findings are reliable (Babbie & Mouton, 2001:282). Finally, case studies may also be utilised as a tool of learning to highlight existing theoretical standpoints on the area under study (Rule & John, 2011:7).

In identifying and selecting the cases for this study, a multiple-case study approach, combined with a single-case analysis, was adopted. This approach is based on the assumption that a relationship exists between the Namibian case (micro level) and the broader field of governance, management and leadership development in Commonwealth countries (macro level) (Rule & John, 2011:21). The unit of analysis, therefore, is the investigation of public sector institutions of governance, management and leadership development. Thus, the single case, as is the focus in this dissertation, is the NIPAM, as one of Africa's youngest MDIs, existing within a larger part of a developing continent. The period on which the case study focuses is the period between the beginning of 2010 and the end of 2017.

This was a deliberate choice given that the NIPAM has been in existence since 2010. Its first strategic plan covered the period 2012-2017 and defines the strategic intent of the institution by providing mechanisms for decision-making, resource allocation and communication within the legislative and policy framework of the Namibian Public sector. There are three types of case study which are positioned to be explanatory, exploratory or descriptive in nature (Yin, 2009:2). This dissertation is both exploratory and descriptive in its approach.

To strengthen the above-mentioned single-case approach and to allow for comparisons to the Namibian case, it is appropriate to examine MDIs in India, South Africa and the United Kingdom using the multiple-case approach. The in-depth examination of the three Commonwealth country experiences provides the researcher with a holistic understanding of the phenomenon in its entirety by merely investigating only one portion (Gerring, 2007:1). Hence, the study of multiple cases allows for comparisons using the

same tools and techniques of data collection, while the single case study focuses solely on Namibia.

Rule and John (2011:21) argue that multiple cases have the flexibility of being subjected to and being analysed by a common framework or tool, therefore allowing methodological replication. The single case, on the other hand, allows for an in-depth investigation by the researcher, who not only has ready access to the case being an insider but is also a participant (Rule & John, 2011:21). The use of the McKinsey 7S model as a common methodological tool is utilised to provide cross-comparisons across the multiple cases to provide generalisations to be tested against the single case and is explained in the next section.

1.8 Data Collection Methods

Given the previous section explaining the broad research method, the approach towards collecting data for this study is explained next. Data sources consist of secondary and primary sources. In this regard, key sources of evidence which have previously been generated by recognised researchers of governance, management and leadership development were considered essential to the holistic study of MDIs.

Secondary data consist of a number of sources such as both published and unpublished journal articles and reports; textbooks; unpublished dissertations and theses; newspapers and magazine articles; government policies, programmes, strategies and legislation; keynote addresses and statements; unpublished Cabinet retreat documents; and websites. These secondary sources of text and documents supplement the data generated through the process of interviews, i.e. data obtained through primary means. For this reason, the data collection methods for this study centre first on conducting a literature review, which is then followed by interviews. These two key approaches are explained next.

1.8.1 Literature Review

There are widespread views regarding the timing, placement and prominence of the literature review when using a grounded theory approach. Strict proponents of classical grounded theory adopt Glaser's (1978) approach in only conducting the literature review after the research findings have been finalised to avoid the danger of influencing the researcher with predetermined ideas or theories (Turner, 1981:225). This dissertation has maintained the approach advocated by Charmaz (2006) in conducting the literature review prior to the study (Charmaz, 2006:10). This approach allowed the researcher to establish the existence of prior research and at the same time complied with the university's research requirements, particularly during the defence of the research proposal. Correspondingly, and since the study also relies on case study research, the literature is utilised to form the basis of, and the justification for, the research and the research questions.

Use of the grounded theory prescribes that as soon as the preliminary findings have been established, the researcher will be in position to assess whether there are unique designs and patterns in relationships, interpret them and draw conclusions to inform the model. Furthermore, the literature can also help the researcher analyse patterns in the data in order to compare the findings of the study to other studies and determine in particular how the study will contribute to science and the knowledge base. Since the use of the case study relies largely on the context, it is important to review the literature to draw the distinctions and delimitations of the research and subsequently determine how varying contexts produce different outcomes (Creswell, 2011:45; Turner, 1981:226; Charmaz, 2006:10).

At the onset of the study, a number of studies from the literature and documents available were sourced either electronically or in hard copy format in an effort to bridge the perceived void. In using Charmaz's (2006) grounded theory approach which assumes that the theory is constructed through past and present interaction with previous documents, people, approaches and research practices, a variety of sources were obtained. Through the process of theoretical memo writing and refinement of concepts, the following

categories as theoretical concepts were adopted: “governance”; “management”; “leadership development”; “capacity development”; and, finally, “public sector reform”. These concepts in conjunction with theoretical sampling further guided the data collection methods and development (Charmaz, 2006:16).

1.8.2 Interviews

The use of the interview as a data collection tool has been described to be the most commonly and frequently utilised instrument within the qualitative tradition (Babbie & Mouton, 2001:289;). An open-ended interview process which resonates well with the use of grounded theory was adopted (Charmaz, 2006:25). Rather than follow a rigid, predetermined set of questions, the interviews followed an open-ended, flexible format in order to generate primary data from the participants. This process, described as an “iterative process”, provides researchers with the opportunity to simultaneously collect information, analyse it and then test it in order to arrive at a model or ideal more in line with the research phenomenon under investigation (Babbie & Mouton, 2001:289).

Grounded theory utilised for the purposes of creating new theory makes use of the open-ended interview method. The interviews, which are transcribed, are subjected to open, axial and selective coding (Strauss & Corbin, 2008:99; Charmaz, 2006:29). This process is reflected in chapters four and five in the dissertation. All data is transcribed into text transcripts and is conducted by the researcher. The process of sampling adopts a theoretical sampling approach where the researcher collects data acquired from the emerging findings. This approach allows the researcher the opportunity to establish patterns and relationships among concepts to create additional data categories (Strauss & Corbin, 2008:100; Charmaz, 2006:32-35). As soon as the categories are developed, further exploration and saturation of these categories are possible.

The sampling technique for this study does not follow what Yin (2014) refers to as conventional sampling logic (Yin, 2014:56-57). This is justified by the choice of both the single-case and multiple-case designs which are considered to be more convincing than just merely describing the population, sampling approach or sample given that a

replication design is followed (Yin, 2014:57). Put differently, each case selected should either result in either literal or theoretical replications which would not be possible if the sampling logic had to be applied. The replication approach first advocates for theory development followed by the selection of cases, with each case constituting a separate study on its own. Furthermore, the rationale for the choice and utilisation of the case method is based on choosing cases which have literal replications and are linked to some evaluation criteria. In this study, for instance, the evaluation criteria would look at how and why some MDIs have selected certain strategies, services and organisational approaches. According to Yin (2014), the selection of cases involves having insight into expected outcomes with the use of the multiple-case approach investigating the variations but at the same time allowing for replications across cases (Yin, 2014:62).

This replication design embedded in the selection of the case study approach is thus considered appropriate given that the cases were selected based on the researcher's prior relationship, knowledge and understanding of the population (Babbie & Mouton, 2001:167). In this study, the cases selected all comprise of similar cases, namely, MDIs or PSTIs established by their respective governments. The cases were also selected due to the researcher's access and availability to the respondents within the respective institutions. As additional background, the researcher has been involved in the establishment of the NIPAM since its inception as a project under the Office of the Prime Minister in 2004 until its evolution into a fully-fledged MDI in 2010. Given this history, it has been possible to approach this social phenomenon as an in-depth study, thereby providing thick descriptions in understanding the social context in which it occurs.

Between 2012 and 2016, a number of study tours and exchange visits between staff of MDIs in the United Kingdom, India and South Africa were undertaken. I was involved as a participant on all these excursions where it was possible to observe the context, interact with the staff and later establish follow-up discussions through the internet – specifically by means of calls using Skype and other voice-enabled computer applications. Each visit provided an opportunity to take field notes and conduct interviews. In most instances, due to the nature of the study and the risk of exposing the various institutions particularly where perceived negative feedback was provided, the issue of anonymity was important.

Yin (2014) contends that the matter of protecting the identities of those interviewed is pertinent, particularly since the findings may have some implications on the institutions and those that have been studied. Moreover, since the purpose of this study is to portray an ‘ideal’ and may not thus justify revealing the names or identities of those interviewed. One compromise suggested is to provide the names of the individuals in a general list grouped by institution and at the same time to avoid attributing a particular comment to an individual but to a number or code (Yin, 2014,196-197; Babbie & Mouton, 2001:523). To comply with the principle of informed consent, the individuals who were interviewed were given the assurance that their identities would not be divulged.

After each of these interviews, additional descriptive and reflective notes were compiled. Further, a preliminary model or diagram was constructed after each of the interviews, which was subsequently shown to the next participant who then provided input. This process of constant adaptation and model evolution continued until no new data emerged, finally culminating in a representative governance, management and leadership development model.

Finally, in order to further consolidate the development of the model, and introduce a process of validation, it was important to introduce the McKinsey 7S model to aid the researcher in gaining “analytic distance” (Strauss & Corbin, 2008:218). The final model after being analysed using the McKinsey 7S model was then applied to the Namibian case. The process of illustrating the various phases of developing a model using grounded theory is illustrated in Table 1.1 illustrating the planned phases of a model using GTM.

Phase	Activity
1. Develop categories	Develop and label the categories based on data obtained.
2. Saturate categories	Provide instances of a category until no new data or information emerges.
3. Abstract definitions	Provide an abstract definition of the category by demarcating the criteria for the category
4. Utilise definitions	Use the definitions as guidance for additional data collection and to provide theoretical reflection.

5. Exploit the category	Ensure that all the angles and perspectives of the category have been covered.
6. Write notes and find emerging patterns between categories	Start documenting the patterns of relationships across all variables and categories.
7. Reflect on the conditions under which the relationships exist	Scrutinise any obvious patterns between and among the relationships in contextualising the conditions.
8. Provide connections, where relevant, to existing theory	Connect and compare the findings to previous research.
9. Use extreme comparisons to the maximum to test emerging relationships	Identify the key variables and dimensions and assess whether the relationship holds at the extremes of these variables.

Table 1.1: Adapted extract from Glaser & Strauss (1967, in Turner, 1981:231).

1.9 Merit of the Study and Contribution to the Field

The study aims to develop a governance, management and leadership development model for a twenty-first-century Namibian public service and aims to determine how this approach can be widely applicable in addressing the capacity development needs required for good governance. While the literature documents the value of management development in a corporate and business context, no such strategy has been developed for the public sector. The study seeks to fill a large conceptual gap which public sector leadership and management development institutes face in view of the emerging challenges of advancing good governance. Aspects relating to the strategic positioning of management development institutes, the integration of research and the strengthening of the links between the capacity development interventions in view of strengthening the public service reform agenda are also considered.

1.10 Chapter Outline

The study contains seven chapters and follows a logical schema that represents the field of management and leadership development in the context of good governance. According to the researcher, this structure is designed to reposition Namibian public sector management and leadership development within a broader frame of future relevance rather than just a subcategory of capacity development and broad administrative reform. The study situates management and leadership development within a much broader context of interpretive social science or public policy and administration but as part of a larger sphere of governance which includes aspects pertaining to the social processes, systems, leadership, management, organisational design and broader issues surrounding capacity development.

Chapter 1: Introduction and Overview provided the reader with an introduction and background to the study. The context was explained by providing an overview of MDIs and their link to governance, management and leadership development. The chapter also briefly mentioned the key issues in the management and leadership development arena, paving the way for the rationale of the study. The research question and research methodology which includes the McKinsey 7S model as an analytical tool were explained, followed by the broad goals and objectives of the study. Finally, the chapter concludes with an overview of the entire dissertation by providing a synopsis of each of the seven chapters.

Chapter 2: Conceptual and Contextual Foundations of Management and Leadership Development: A Review of the Literature defines the key concepts and provides the reader with a common and contextual understanding of the terms used and to highlight the relationship between governance, management and leadership development. The chapter goes on to highlight the trends found in the literature on the conceptual and contextual foundations of management and leadership development globally and in Africa. It discusses the challenges, the corresponding opportunities, and the synonymic roles and relationships to which leadership and management development under their respective institutes should be aligned and positioned. Finally, the literature review introduces the

McKinsey 7S model as a tool to develop an appropriate governance, management and leadership development model.

Chapter 3: Comparative Perspectives of Governance, Management and Leadership Development highlights the international perspectives on governance, management and leadership development. The chapter provides a comparative analysis of three countries. These countries are selected cases by means of which the chapter focuses on the experiences of management and leadership development across the Commonwealth. South Africa, the United Kingdom and India are selected in reconnoitring the relationships of these management development institutes and their respective roles in transforming the public service towards the global advancement of good governance.

Chapter 4: A Normative, Grounded Theory of Governance, Management and Leadership Development is based on the analysis of the three country cases examined in the previous chapter where a normative model using the grounded theory approach is developed using the literature review and a series of interviews. During this process of consultation, the variables that shape governance, leadership and management development as a transformative system are tested on a group of pre-identified experts from the three Commonwealth countries. These experts effectively serve as the basis for comparison. As part of the validation process, this chapter also presents the results of the open-ended interviews illustrating an analysis of the thick descriptions and quotes from participants – each depicting different viewpoints in contributing to the emerging model.

Chapter 5: The Namibian Case follows by describing the case of the Namibia Institute of Public Administration and Management (NIPAM), its role and its value in transforming the public service. The chapter continues to analyse NIPAM's current institutional arrangements in terms of the normative model proposed in chapter four. In order to supplement the analytical process, the McKinsey 7S model will also be utilised and applied to the Namibian context after the interviews have been concluded. Furthermore, a political, economic, social, technological, legal and environmental analysis is also undertaken. The purpose of this analysis is to describe the current challenges, legislation, policies,

institutionalisation and implementation of efficient, effective and sustainable management and leadership development.

Chapter 6: A Public Sector Model of Governance, Management and Leadership Development for Namibia focuses on outlining the future model and corresponding strategies to be adopted in positioning NIPAM using the McKinsey 7S model. The essence of applying the model highlights the future of NIPAM as an MDI, its role in transforming the public service, improving performance and service delivery, and ultimately contributing to good governance. This may be seen as the most significant part of the dissertation since the research questions, sub-questions and objectives will have been addressed. At the same time, this application of the model reinforces the need for, and importance of, the study.

The final chapter, Chapter 7: Lessons for the Future of Governance, Management and Leadership Development focuses on describing the key findings of the study, drawing conclusions and making recommendations both for practice and for theory by contributing to the body of knowledge in public policy, administration management development and governance. This part of the dissertation moves from general to specific, whilst articulating a pragmatic approach of the model for implementation as developed through the study.

Finally, the appendices include a breakdown of costs taken from the Annual Reports of the Namibian case institution (Appendix 1) is included together with the interview questions and the records of consultative interviews across institutions (Appendix 2) that form part of the supplementary information and data.

1.11 Summary

This preliminary chapter has provided an overview of the study in sketching the background, rationale and problem statement. The research problem, the theoretical approach to the research, research questions and the research objectives were also provided. Following this, the qualitative research approach used for the study was explained. To clarify this approach, it had also been deemed necessary to explain the

research method and the method for collecting data. The chapter concluded with an overview of the chapters contained in the dissertation. Chapter two will focus on the literature review by discussing some of the pertinent literature on management and leadership development globally and in Africa as well as the contextual challenges and opportunities for their alignment to good governance.

Chapter 2: Conceptual and Contextual Foundations of Management and Leadership Development - A Review of the Literature

“The evidence from multiple cases is often considered more compelling, and the overall study considered to be more robust. Hence, multiple case studies follow a replication design which is analogous to studies using multiple experiments by uncovering significant findings from a single experiment. An ensuing and pressing priority would be to replicate this finding in conducting a second, third and even more experiments. [...] In multiple case studies, each case is carefully selected so that it either predicts similar results or predicts contrasting results for anticipatable reasons” (Yin, 2014:57).

2.1 Introduction

Chapter one provided the background, rationale and problem statement in order to frame the research context. The research problem, the theoretical approach to the research, research questions and the research objectives were also provided and the methodological approach to the study set out briefly. The chapter also briefly discussed the methods to collect data. Finally, the chapter concluded with an overview of the chapters contained in the dissertation.

The current chapter provides an analysis of the literature sourced in the field of governance, management and leadership development. It must be stated from the outset that there are methodological challenges and considerations in interpreting these constructs. Therefore, it is necessary to first define the key concepts in order to promote a common understanding and to contextualise the relationship between governance, leadership and management development. In particular, the review begins with an analysis of the literature on MDIs, focusing on their role within the context of public sector reform and their relationship to capacity development. In addition, this chapter provides an overview of the historical background of MDIs both internationally and across Commonwealth Africa. In providing this overview, it is also necessary to touch on the institutional architecture of governance, leadership and management development and at

the same time mention the challenges, strategies, opportunities, strengths and achievements.

Hence, this chapter seeks to answer the two sub-questions, which are: firstly, what is the current context and what are the related challenges of governance, leadership and management development? Secondly, what are the current conceptual and theoretical frameworks defining governance, leadership and management development? The answer to these questions fulfil the research aim as stated in the introductory chapter and addresses the following objectives of broadly describing the related challenges surrounding the context of governance, leadership and management development; and conducting a review of the literature and conceptual frameworks on governance, leadership and management development and their relationship to capacity development.

The literature review comprises three parts. The first part details the concepts and contexts framing MDIs. At first, this is done broadly before the review is confined to Africa. In this review, a descriptive analysis of the challenges, strategies, opportunities, strengths and achievements for governance, leadership and management development is provided.

The second part of the literature review focuses on the purpose and mandate of these MDIs within the macro context of the reform agenda by arguing that a research gap exists, given their role and intended impact. While there are several works on management and leadership development, there is still a research vacuum on the successful implementation of an appropriate and operational model of governance, management and leadership development.

Although the literature details the challenges of these MDIs within various political, economic, social, technological, legal, environmental and historical contexts, far too little attention has been paid to the development of an all-embracing holistic model which includes the institutional setup and the micro-level variables and workings of such institutions. In many ways, this reflects the diversity of these institutes – both across the African continent and internationally. This also relates to the variety of contextual

challenges which all these institutes experience and which all require different solutions. In this section of the literature review, a review of some of the organisational development trends pertaining to the setup of an MDI is undertaken.

The third and final part of the literature review consequently focuses on utilising the McKinsey 7S model to develop an appropriate governance, management and leadership development model. The next section deals with the concepts related to the context of management and leadership development.

2.2 Concepts

Since much of the existing literature relates to the nuances of governance, management and leadership development in the public sector, a brief discussion regarding the definitions of the terminology used in this study is necessary. The following section therefore provides the reader with a general understanding of the terms used in this dissertation. It is important to note that there are different theories and ideas that have emerged and are currently emerging in the field of governance, management and leadership development – each theory with a distinctive emphasis, depending on the context. However, a comprehensive and detailed discussion regarding these differences and theories will not fall within the scope of this dissertation.

2.2.1 Training and Capacity Development

The concepts of training and capacity development are used widely and are used throughout this dissertation. In many instances, they are terms used interchangeably and they will therefore require defining.

Training is understood to refer to a planned, systematic process of acquiring the knowledge, skills and abilities to carry out tasks specific to the workplace and aimed at achieving organisational objectives (ASTD, 2010:18; Nadler & Wiggs, 1986:12). Capacity development, in turn, is a term which has evolved with time, meaning different things depending on the context in which it is used. While it could be used to refer to either a

broad or a narrow definition, a lack of a commonly utilised conceptual framework and terminology have contributed to the difficulty in defining it appropriately (Taylor & Clarke, 2008:35). While many definitions have opted to define capacity development broadly, the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) states that while “‘capacity’ is defined as the ability of people, organisations and society as a whole to manage their affairs successfully, ‘capacity development’ is understood as the process whereby people, organisations and society as a whole unleash, strengthen, create, adapt and maintain capacity over time” (OECD, 2006:14).

The United Nations (UN) uses the term “capacity” to refer to “the engine of human development” in light of the existing global political, economic, social, technological and legal challenges (UNDP, 2009:4). According to the UN, and for the purpose of this dissertation, given that the emphasis is on changing mindsets and attitudes, capacity development is broader than training and is defined as a transformative “process through which individuals, organisations and societies obtain, strengthen and maintain the capabilities to set and achieve their own development objectives over time” (UNDP, 2009:5).

2.2.2 Management Development

Management development refers to any attempt at enhancing the existing knowledge, skills and attitudes of a manager to improve an employee’s performance (Dessler, 2011:311). Other authors have also included management development to include aspects of personal, career and organisational development as central to improving not only an individual but also the organisation (Blanchard & Thacker, 2007:443). From a contemporary perspective, management development can also be defined as “any form of training, formal or informal, accredited or non-accredited, which enhances the ability of managers to provide direction, facilitate change, use resources, work with people, achieve results, or manage self and personal skills” (Management Development Council, 2010:17). Hence, management development in this study is used to describe an all-encompassing process of providing education, training and capacity development to improve performance at both personal and institutional level.

The focus of management development in scholarly works has largely been on training interventions, development of the curriculum and syllabus and on the evaluation of training and development interventions as opposed to on the strategy, organisation and policies of the institution itself. The manner in which these isolated studies have been conducted provides a haphazard and fragmented depiction of the spectrum and practice of management and leadership development (Mabey, 2002:131). Mabey (2002) further defines four key processes related to the success of management development interventions, namely the existence of a management development policy, diagnosis, review and, finally, implementation (Mabey, 2002:134).

Mabey and Gooderham (2005:139) in later studies on the future of management and leadership development conclude that while investment in management and leadership development is important, it is more challenging “[to create] a consistent, longer term and strategic approach to fitting management development. Indeed, one should construe [their] findings as a warning that there are no off-the-shelf ‘quick fixes’”. Finally, Mabey and Finch-Lees (2007), in describing the domain of management development, illustrate these distinctions in Figure 2.1.

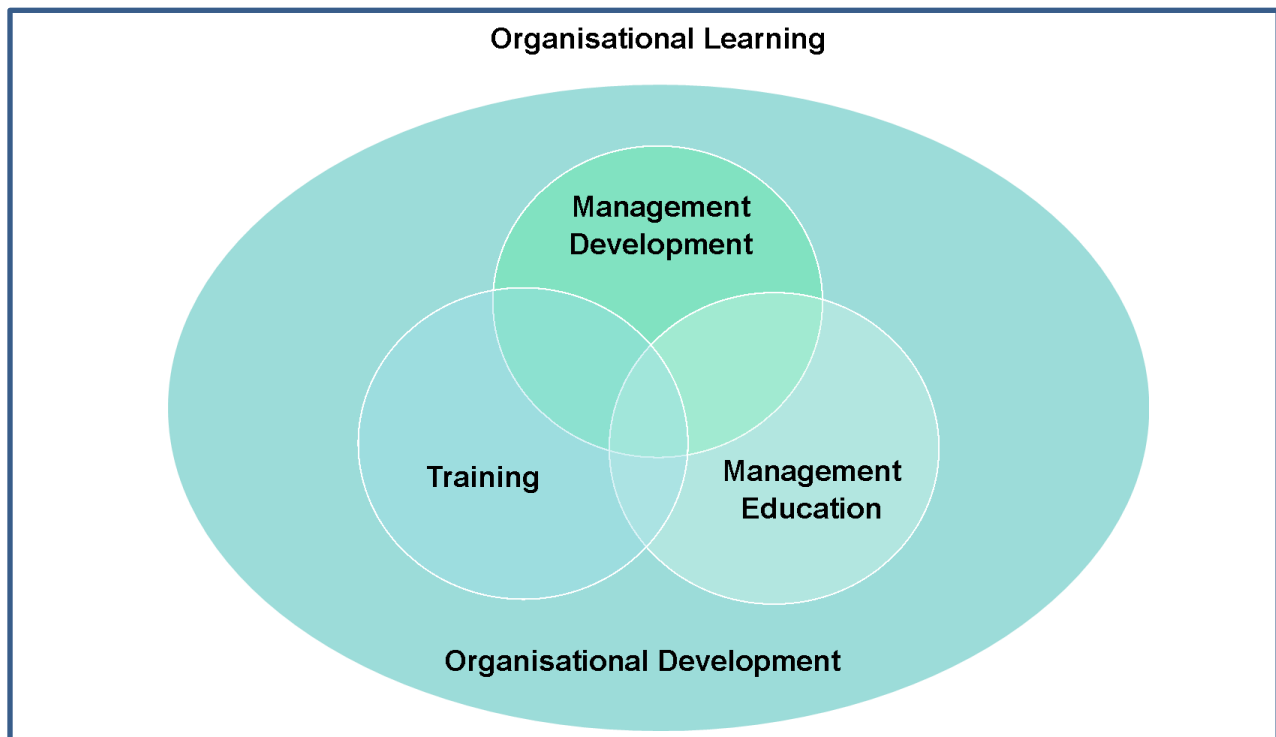


Figure 2.1: Domains of Management Development (Mabey & Finch-Lees, 2007:37)

According to Mabey and Finch-Lees (2007), the focus of organisational learning encompasses an interplay of management learning, education, development, training and the organisation development processes. This perspective is a principal departure from content with more of an emphasis on understanding processes and the role of the group in learning. Similarly, the influence of the political, economic, social, technological, legal and environmental contexts affect organisational learning and development (Mabey & Finch-Lees, 2007:38).

2.2.3 Management Development Institute

The Random House Webster's Dictionary defines the term institute as "a society or organisation for carrying on a particular work [...] devoted to instruction in technical subjects and organised for advanced instruction and research in a relatively narrow field or in some specialised activity" (Definitions.net, n.d.). For the purpose of this dissertation, the term management development institute (MDI) is therefore defined and contextualised within the field of public policy studies and refers to a politically neutral organisation tasked with serving as a think tank on policy issues, providing capacity development interventions and consultancy services to the public sector (Agere, 1999:2; Mokgoro, 2002:30; Oalopa, 2013:3). MDIs are further defined as public sector institutions set up by their respective government(s) and dedicated to provide induction and "in-service post-employment training, as well as to undertake research that will provide the link between professional researchers and policy practitioners" (Oalopa, 2013:3).

2.2.4 Public Sector

The term public sector is interchangeably used with the term public service or civil service. While no standard definition of civil service or civil servant exists in the literature consulted, the World Bank defines the civil service as government employees in central government, specifically government employees performing general administrative tasks. This narrow definition excludes not only the military, but also teachers, health workers and judges (World Bank, 2008:3). A definition of the civil service as people employed by the government, excluding politicians and members of the military, have been proposed by various authors (Van Wart, Hondegheem & Schwella, 2015:2).

Within the Namibian context, the public service is defined by the Public Service Act (Act 13 of 1995) and only includes Offices, Ministries and Agencies (O/M/As) (Republic of Namibia, 1995). The Institute of Internal Auditors have defined the public sector as an all-inclusive term to include core government, agencies and public enterprises (IIA-SA, 2011:3). This definition corresponds to how the World Bank defines the public sector and is consistent with how it is used in this study to comprise central ministries, agencies and regional governments as well as regulators and state-owned enterprises (SOEs) (World Bank, 2012:3).

2.2.5 Governance

The concept of “governance” as it relates to public administration and management has evolved over the past thirty years and has received a considerable amount of critique. Starting with the World Bank’s narrow definition of governance as “the exercise of power for the management of a nation’s affairs” (World Bank, 1989:60), the term governance, albeit commonly used in the second half of the twentieth century was first used by Harlan Cleveland to refer to public administration. Governance has also been criticised as public administration and management as being rehashed by new-generation academics as a faddish concept, much like the flavour of the decade in recent times (Strange, 1983:341). It also defines practices that frame how various organisations coordinate and control, and how actors reconcile and prioritise, competing needs of its stakeholders. Other authors refer to governance in terms of broadly deviating from the traditional forms of government and governance (Osborn & Gaebler, 1992:4) or in terms of being centred around constitutional and macro level understanding of reform (Lynn, Henrich & Hill, 2001:42). Nevertheless, the practices that promote an organisation’s strategic capabilities, organise collective activities and influence organisational behaviour are both enabled and constrained by governance structures and systems (Harlacher & Reihlen, 2014:125).

With all the debate the concept has generated, there is a growing realisation among governance researchers that the socio-economic systems and information flows across

government have become more complex and interdependent (Anheier, 2013:11; Levi-Faur, 2012:5). Therefore, the term governance can be understood from two perspectives. The first perspective refers to public administration as the regular, routine management of public resources and organisations. Thus, public administration is used interchangeably with governance, which includes the management of both state and non-state actors as it is affected by the impact of public policies (Frederickson, 2005:300). The second, deeper understanding of governance considers not only the changing dynamics of both internal and external actors in the public sector environment but also the need for a conceptually grounded framework which sheds light on how these institutions ought to respond to the variety of governance actors and levels. Thus, studies investigating MDIs should be concerned with the characteristics of strategies, structures, institutional arrangements and controls of such organisations, the role players involved as well as the consequences of actions and decisions.

Within this context, the term governance when used in this dissertation is based on a more recent definition provided by Schwella (2015), which refers to the complex and interrelated manner in which a society, through its actors, manages its sociopolitical and economic affairs to achieve policy or organisational objectives. These actors, drawn from the state, civil society and the private sector, interact in a manner that allows for a mediation of their interests and expression of mutual understanding towards people-centred development (Schwella, 2015:13).

The sustainability challenges around these MDIs and their relationship with the state requires that these institutions are tasked with develop organisational capabilities, strategies and systems to cope with the constraints of their environment at the macro level. At the same time, they are also tasked with establishing appropriate organisational structures and processes that are implementable while providing guidelines and adopting principles to guide and direct staff within the organisation.

2.2.6 Leadership

While a variety of definitions of the term leadership have been suggested, this dissertation will use the definition first suggested by Van Wart (2011:35) who maintains that despite the fact that it is “as old as the written language”, its definition in the public sector is starkly minimal in comparison to its use and the manner in which it is defined in the private sector, largely due to its relationship to reform (Van Wart, 2011:20). Thus, the definition of leadership in the public sector cannot influence a definition pertaining to the same thing in the private sector. In setting out the differences between the private sector and the public sector, Lemay (2009:1) aptly defines leadership as the “practice of inspiring people to embrace a collective vision, by effecting change through strategic alignment (institutional, political, organisational, and technical) as an object of leadership”. Hence, the term leadership is tied to notions of coping in times of change and transition in order to become sustainable and competitive within the volatile public sector environment (Dive, 2008:14).

2.2.7 Management

While leadership refers to the softer yet inspirational aspects, the term management is used throughout this dissertation to refer to the process of creating systems to bring about order, coherence and consistent results, stressing the need to plan, lead, organise and control resources throughout the organisation (Van Wart, 2011:32). This process entails establishing and following processes amidst complex situations across the organisation to bring about order, coherence and consistency (Northhouse, 2010:7).

Clarifying these concepts, as a starting point, provides the reader with a collective and contextual understanding of the terms used. Before moving to the next section, the next paragraph explains the relationship between governance, management and leadership development and the MDI.

2.2.8 The nexus between Governance, Management and Leadership Development and Management Development Institutes

The significance of governance, leadership and management development vis-à-vis the public service, public sector reform, capacity development and MDIs is that all these concepts are interrelated. In short, they advocate for improved efforts aimed at enhancing good governance, along with the efficiency and effectiveness of service delivery (Agere, 1999:2; Frederickson, 2005:283; Arinaitwe, 2009:5; Bertucci, 2007:3; Broucker, 2014:2; Olaopa, 2013:2). With the worldwide changes in the public sector brought about by new public management (NPM) ideas over the years, the increased demands from the citizenry compel governments to be more accountable, flexible, responsive, deliver quality services and to operate in a timely and professional manner (Batley & Larbi, 2004:10).

An impact study undertaken in the United Kingdom (UK) on three of the management and leadership interventions between 2005 and 2007 examined both the environmental and organisational contexts using the NPM style reforms of the mid 1990s. These reforms reflect new responsibilities, which include providing statutory services in a competitive market with private and voluntary sector organisations and contracting with other agencies and companies to provide services and stimulate new services (Flynn, 2012: 90). Accordingly, with the rise of NPM reforms, there has been an emphasis on the kinds of competencies, training and capacity development programmes required for staff working in the public sector (Anselmi, Lazzini, & Zarone, 2013:4; Anselmi, Kudo & Zarone, 2013:823).

The reforms also dictate that public servants are expected to develop new skills, such as planning and decision-making and the management of resources. At the same time, the responsibilities and functions of staff within the public sector have expanded to include, amongst others, the provision of policy advice and adaptation, enhanced intersectorial and intergovernmental co-ordination as well as strengthened communication and dialogue capacity (Van Wart, Hondeghem & Schwella, 2015:1). Given these developments, the importance of developing the capacity of the public sector to perform can no longer be taken for granted (Van Wart, Hondeghem & Schwella, 2015:1).

In addition, the introduction of softer skills of leadership and change management are required in order to introduce and work with new standards, systems, processes, partners and organisational structures. This calls for an urgent reconsideration of the current and future knowledge, skills and abilities of public managers (Anselmi et al., 2013:3). Furthermore, with the passage of time, the concepts public administration and management are fast being replaced and substituted with the term governance. This implies that there is a renewed movement away from merely learning concepts and ideas of public management and administration towards developing competencies in areas of multi-stakeholder management, enhanced performance, fostering commitment and being more service and client-centred (Ulrich & Smallwood, 2009:33).

Moving on to the African context, it has become commonplace that many African countries are plagued by political and socio-economic instability (Afegbua & Adejuwon, 2012:141). Issues around widespread income disparity, poverty, corruption, rising crime, scarcity of land and natural resources emphasise the problems of leadership, management and good governance on the continent. The African Governance Report II published by the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (UNECA) suggests that a concerted effort is required in Africa in the area of public sector governance and reform, with specific emphasis on capacity building in public management, transparency, accountability and control of corruption (UNECA, 2009:85). This call for a concerted effort towards enhancing leadership, management and governance through capacity development is reinforced in the Capacity Development Strategy which was published six years later and which points out that:

Africa's transformation agenda requires capable member States, strong leadership, effective regional and sub regional and country institutions, and competent staff. Such transformation also depends on inclusive multi-stakeholder collaboration across constituencies, political vision and implementation capacity at all levels (UNECA, 2015:3).

Hence, the state of capacity development in and for the public service has been, and continues to be, an increasingly fundamental issue in relation to the advancement of the good governance agenda in Africa.

Ayee (2008:12) maintains that public services worldwide, and particularly in African countries, have a major role to play in addressing issues of socio-economic development, regional integration, poverty alleviation and good governance. Put differently, the state, through the establishment of capacity development institutions for management and leadership development, is inherently responsible for ensuring that the public service has the necessary capacity to meet these challenges.

Since there is a greater demand from the public for better and improved services, there is an expectation for public servants to function and perform accordingly. Consequently, there is an equal expectation that there should be a positive correlation between institutions that provide capacity development and improved performance. Following the report of the Task Force on Standards of Excellence in Public Education and Training, it was established that high-performing public sector organisations are associated with the development of efficient and effective public servants and administrators and ultimately linked to good governance (UNDESA, 2008:12). The next section provides an overview of both international and African MDIs indicates the broad challenges of governance, management and leadership development.

2.3 Context

In studying the field of management and leadership development, three key types of institutions are mentioned:

- 2.3.1 Functional schools that provide capacity development for agricultural, teaching, and military and defence staff;
- 2.3.2 Higher education institutions, universities and business schools which have faculties dedicated to certain disciplines; and
- 2.3.3 Management development institutions (MDIs) whose primary clientele group are professional, senior and executive public servants (Agere, 1999:32; Ayeni, n.d.:5; Olaopa, 2013:3; Zyani, 2002:22).

It must be stated that functional schools and higher education institutions, through their respective schools of public administration and in particular business schools, play an

important role in setting the foundation for management and leadership development. However, due to practical constraints, while the researcher may refer to some cases of functional schools or higher education institutions, this dissertation cannot provide a comprehensive review of the functional schools or the higher education institutions with regard to their role, mandate or positioning for and within the public sector.

2.3.1 Contextual Overview of Management Development Institutes

The origins and establishment of MDIs across the world and in Africa are well documented by several authors and international organisations such as the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), the United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (UNDESA), the International Association of Schools and Institutes of Administration (IASIA), the Commonwealth Association for Public Administration (CAPAM) and the International Labour Organisation (ILO) (Agere, 1999:2; Inside Learning Technologies & Skills, 2013:2; Bertucci, 2007:3; UNDESA/IASIA Task Force, 2007:1-45). While the literature highlights the notable efforts made in most countries of the world to enhance the education and training of managers in the public service, research pertaining to the relationship between governance, policy, organisational strategy, structure, systems and the design of capacity development interventions is insubstantial (Agere, 1999a:20).

The literature also shows that investigating the role of MDIs is a continuing concern within the context of governance and improved public service delivery (Olaopa, 2013:12; Anselmi & Zarone, 2013:283). This concern is juxtaposed by the concepts, contexts and the management of service delivery, which are all experiencing radical and significant change with globalisation affecting both governments and governance (Anheier, 2013:11). It is against this volatile context that several African governments have reaffirmed the importance of developing management and leadership capacity in the public sector on various platforms and in various fora (Anselmi & Zarone, 2013:283; Johnson & Molloy, n.d.:23; Mokgoro, 2002:2). The main target group and recipient of MDIs' services are largely top-level, senior and middle managers within the bureaucracy. The high profile of the participants offers opportunities for the institutes to inject new techniques and

methods into public sector management. These techniques and methods, when applied on the job, are expected to lead to more efficient and effective public services (Arinaitwe, 2009:54).

At the same time, most governments have recognised that investments made in economic and social development cannot realise their potential for improved, efficient and effective service delivery without proper management and leadership capacity (Anselmi & Zarone, 2013:823). The foreword in the 2013 Economic Report on Africa echoes this realisation to include other macro-level challenges which include, amongst others, changes in demography, urbanisation, global traditional power structures as a result of the rise in information and communications technology and globalisation (UNECA, 2013:4). These evolving challenges make it particularly difficult to realise the African Union's (AU's) vision of becoming "[a]n integrated, prosperous and peaceful Africa, driven by its own citizens and representing a dynamic force in the global arena" (African Union, 2014:2). The Strategic Plan 2014/17 of the African Union Commission (AUC) prioritises the strengthening of institutional capacities of member states and the Union through capacity development interventions focusing on a number of key areas including technology and innovation education, peace, stability and good governance (African Union, 2014:3).

In response not only to strengthening the institutional capacities of public sector organisations but also the challenges of globalisation, there is therefore an urgent need to address the role of MDIs that have been set up to design, develop and deliver management and leadership interventions both internationally and in Africa (Haruna & Kannae, 2013:493). Past research into the roles of MDIs was mainly concerned with their respective output in the development of policies, provision of consultancy services and applied research, which has been, and continues to be, marginal (Ayee, 2008:43).

This limitation, which, amongst others, illustrates that across Africa these national public administration institutes of management and leadership development or MDIs face the danger of becoming not only ineffective but also irrelevant (Agere, 1999:4). A former chief

financial officer of an African MDI, in reflecting on the collective performance of various MDIs, suggests that in addition to their failure to act as agents of transformation, their performance has been “quite poor instead of serving as a role model for the effective and efficient management of the public service” (Zyani, 2002:8).

Debate continues about the best strategies or models for MDIs. At an annual meeting of heads of public service training institutes organised by the Centre Africain de Formation et de Recherche Administratives pour le Développement (CAFRAD), the former director general expressed deep concern in stating that African MDIs, in order to maintain their reason for existence, require complete repositioning (Ayee, 2008:10; Agere, 1999:4).

This view is supported by a number of academics who maintain that MDIs should undergo restructuring efforts as part of a continuous reform process (Arinaitwe, 2009:52; Kiggundu, 1991:33; Agere, 1999:20). A former South African Minister of Public Services, however, cautioned that, in designing public sector reforms aimed at improving service delivery through capacity development efforts, a one-size-fits-all approach should be avoided (Fraser-Moleketi, 2009:xiii). In contrast to the idea that MDIs require a model which repositions them as part of the reform agenda, a systematic and holistic understanding of a befitting model appropriate for a particular context is still lacking. Thus, collectively, these studies outline a critical gap for research into MDIs, while considering the context and other organisational design variables. The next section discusses the role and the mandate of MDIs.

2.3.2 Role and Mandate of Management Development Institutes

Given the research gap highlighted in the previous section, it is well established that in most African countries MDIs were established soon after their independence (Haruna & Kannae, 2013:493). Their main functions were to encourage the development of individuals in the public service, to stimulate debate and conduct practical research, to engage on policy issues and, finally, to close the gap between theory and practice (Clarke, 1998:399). Over time, a number of public service challenges across various African countries began to emerge. Along with underutilised and unutilised staff, bloated

structures, fragmentation of activities and resources, and absence of human resource policy guidelines on training and development were challenges that began to impact negatively on service delivery (Saasa, 2007:92).

In discovering these challenges, the first serious discussions and analyses of African MDIs emerged during the eighties culminating in the Report to the Regional Training Council of the Southern African Development Coordination Conference (SADCC) and the National Association of Schools of Public Affairs and Administration (NASPAA) (Agere, 1999:4). From an organisational or micro perspective, the report, which examined nine MDIs of the SADCC member states, highlighted serious limitations in their services, staffing, development of courses and training methodologies or approaches (NASPAA, 1985: iv). The report also highlighted limitations from a macro-level perspective, citing the need for the programmes to consider issues of regional significance, the political context and economies of scale while considering comparative and regional perspectives in a sensitive and appropriate manner for the African context (NASPAA, 1985: ii-iii).

Despite the comprehensive analysis of all nine SADCC cases detailed in the report, it is acknowledged that each of the member states exist within their own historical, political, economic, social and unique contextual challenges amidst their different stages of development. Thus, the report also recommended that in order to avoid making broad and generalised recommendations, future studies would need to consider the micro or organisational environment in order to relate its findings to the unique public sector needs of a particular country. Additionally, much of the research undertaken on African MDIs have been designed to address the harsh, negative sociopolitical, economic and poor public leadership assumptions of a particular country (Ayeni, n.d.:12; Agere, 1999:21; Mokgoro, 2002:3; Arinaitwe, 2009:28). Apart from the NASPAA Report (1985), there is a general lack of research on governance, management and leadership development in Namibia and specifically the recently established Namibian MDI. Hence, a more in-depth analysis into the challenges that other MDIs have been experiencing since their establishment was deemed necessary to inform the Namibian model. These challenges are detailed in the next section.

2.3.2 Challenges

To date, the bulk of the research conducted on MDIs highlight a number of challenges. This is particularly evident across MDIs in Africa. In highlighting these macro-level issues and challenges, the literature consulted reveals that there has never been a holistic study focusing on both the macro- and micro-level variables, and in particular on MDIs as learning organisations in light of the governance challenges they face, given their unique contexts and perspectives, despite research highlighting this gap almost two decades ago (Lewis, 1997:4).

Similarly, over the past two decades, a number of researchers have assessed and documented the challenges of MDIs (Blunt & Jones, 1992:55; Johnson & Molloy, n.d.:32; Olaopa, 2013:22; Saasa, 2007:90; Agere, 1999:12). According to these assessments, MDIs were largely effective until the 1980s, when their decline began. This decline may possibly be attributed to the changes in the public administration and management environment (Frederickson, 2005:300; Agere, 1999:13) and the developments in the transformation of the state and its subnational role players in the governance context (Frederickson, 2005:301). Subsequently, MDIs or Public Administration Institutes (PAIs) have been tasked with assisting public services in their respective countries for developing the capabilities required for the crafting and implementation of key reforms towards advancing the good governance and socio-economic development agenda (African Development Bank, 2005:3; Ayee, 2008:13).

Therefore, what is known about MDIs, particularly in Africa, is largely based on empirical studies, highlighting their role in serving as think tanks through advancing and conducting research (Agere, 1999:32; Arinaitwe, 2009:21; Clarke, 1998:399; Olaopa, 2013:22). The research, which would have been channelled as evidence-based information and inputs into public policy formulation and policy reforms, is described by some authors to be at best disappointing (Blunt & Jones, 1992:315). Other studies recognise the critical role played by these MDIs but at the same time point out that there has been an increasingly and growing point of concern across various stakeholders who are questioning the performance, quality and relevance of these interventions (Ayee, 2008:23). In view of all

that has been mentioned so far, the challenges which have been identified in the literature are grouped and summarised in the section which follows.

2.3.2.1 The Relevance Challenge

In as far as challenges have been identified, in most studies, the prevailing question surrounding MDIs relates to the extent to which MDIs are relevant. Another issue is whether they are contributing to countries' development through their interventions and offering (Agere, 1999:5; Mokgoro, 2002:15; Ayeni, n.d.:16). In these arguments, there is no evidence to illustrate any success stories of MDIs that have made any meaningful impact on development. In this regard, the World Bank Institute (2006) summarises the foregoing paragraph by stating that:

Most efforts at capacity development remain fragmented, making it difficult to capture cross-sectoral influences and to draw general conclusions. Many capacity development activities are not founded on rigorous needs assessments and do not include appropriate sequencing of measures aimed at institutional or organisational change and individual skill building. What is needed is a more comprehensive and sustained approach, one that builds a permanent capacity to manage sectors and deliver services. Finally, better tools are needed to track, monitor, and evaluate capacity development efforts (World Bank Institute, 2006:3).

Factors found to be influencing the relevance and quality of training of MDIs have been explored in several studies and are based on the idea that the locally devised solutions are substandard in developing their national policies (Adamolekun, 2007:83). African governments consequently show a preference for western countries' solutions, specifically that of the United States of America and that of countries in Europe (Adamolekun, 2007:83). Accordingly, previous studies reported that the growth in information communications technology (ICT) has also influenced the manner in which training institutions generally deliver their services to their clientele (Blanchard & Thacker, 2007:443). Similarly, the rapid development in information technology is accelerating the growth of distance education. Information technology has resulted in a virtual workplace which impacts on training delivery and calls for innovative methods for delivering traditional

methods of capacity development (Chanda et al., 2007:417). As such, public leaders and managers are expected to keep pace with these technological changes and new platforms of communication which the technology and in particular the mobile technology market has introduced.

These emerging technologies to support innovative learning are still very much in their infancy and remain very far from the current practice. In countries across the Commonwealth, public servants, through dedicated public service MDIs, still attend a range of face-to-face and on-site courses related to career advancement, finance, human resource management, communication, programme and project management, networking, strategic thinking, creative problem-solving, managing diversity and change, and leadership. These courses are derived from curricula which resonate with NPM thinking as underlined by Kernaghan, Marson and Borins (2000:42) to be instrumental in best practice organisations (Kernaghan et al., 2000:42). Equally, these courses are to be complemented by a new set of competencies which include the ability to implement entrepreneurial, innovative approaches to work and, at the same time, to harness information technology and to be adaptable in improving the system for efficient service delivery (Oloapo, 2013:201).

Therefore, the key challenge for MDIs is to remain current and responsive to the external and changing nature of the environment in which they exist so that they are equipped to develop the capacities of the public service in coping with the challenges (Agere, 1999:22). In addition, with many Commonwealth countries facing the challenge of an aging public service and an even more severe challenge in devising a strategy to attract younger entrants, the role of MDIs in the selection, recruitment, capacity development and retention of public servants is becoming critical to the existence of these institutions (Selden, 2009:40).

Another study noted that although the Ghana Institute of Management and Public Administration (GIMPA) focuses on educating and training public service managers, the impact of the education and training provided for effective governance is yet to be felt (Haruna & Kannae, 2013:509). The criticism levelled at the programmes and curricula

highlight the international pressures at the expense at and disregard for the local context, suggesting that “nominative comprehensive curricula” which are not only practical but also informed by both local and foreign political conditions should be considered as a “basis for developing a true global curriculum of public affairs education and training” (Haruna & Kannae, 2013:509).

This seems to be consistent with sentiments expressed by Mhone (2003) at a workshop held in Johannesburg over a decade ago entitled “Building an African Governance and Public Administration Support and Research Agenda”. It was argued that since independence, various African countries inherited western public administration models and, despite attempts to adopt other approaches, have failed. This admission raises a key question as to whether the organisational and institutional model, which is characteristically a western approach, is ideal to address the capacity development needs of African countries (Mhone, 2003:7).

To a large extent, this question is critical and is yet to be answered as there are major challenges facing African public administrations. These challenges include, amongst others, weak institutions, a dominant colonial mindset in public administration, poor policy implementation coupled with an absence of legislative frameworks and endemic corruption (Mukandala, 2000:6). The work of Ayee (2008) in this respect found that in order to remain relevant and to play a meaningful role, MDIs would, and should, be well positioned to address these challenges. Given their unique mandates, MDIs are also expected to provide consultancy services to government institutions in mitigating the impact of these challenges. The value addition of the consultancy services would then provide for interaction and exchange with practitioners so that the learning gained from the consultancy is either explored through further research or through infusing the training with relevant, real-world and practical examples (Ayee, 2008:30).

2.3.2.2 The Funding Challenge

While several attempts have been made to confirm the emerging realisation that conventional management and leadership capacity development interventions traditionally

offered by MDIs should be more focused on local, solution-focused, relevant, innovative and responsive development-oriented programmes, the literature highlights a key paradoxical limitation. This paradox points towards the need for an operational model which would ensure that an MDI would not only be able to deliver the services but also cover the costs for delivering such services (Agere, 1999:7).

Many MDIs suffer from limited budgetary provisions from their respective governments. This constraint affects the recruitment of high-calibre, qualified and competent staff. This, in turn, affects the minimal output of services rendered, poor performance, low status, and minimal focus on policy development, applied research and absence of innovative practices (Mokgoro, 2002:5; Ayeni, n.d.:3). Similarly, because of their diminished performance, their role in driving the policy agenda is minimised. Therefore, the funding base, amongst many other aspects of the organisation, suffers (Arinaitwe, 2009:7). This vicious cycle results in government institutions not selecting the MDI as the provider of choice or in many instances expecting the MDI to deliver services and defer payment for as long as possible, given that the MDI is a government-owned institution (Agere, 1999:6). In an attempt to survive, MDIs have been known to divert their services to the private sector or to other clients who are able to pay or pay timeously.

With the resultant change in focus and service delivery to non-government clients, an unwanted situation, referred to as a “role-related challenge”, emerges (Clarke, 1998:407). Agere (1999) more appropriately terms the situation to be a challenge of “role-displacement”, meaning that the public sector and political environment provides the context for training and services provided (Agere, 1999:7). Thus, the provision of these services to clients who are not the original beneficiaries deviates from the initial mandate due to the need for the MDI to survive. This challenge has greater policy implications given the need for MDIs to assist the public sector in repositioning itself against a broader reform agenda towards being more professional, efficient and effective (Olaopa, 2008:44).

2.3.2.3 The Policy and Public Sector Reform Challenge

Given the limitations in funding and relevance, there appears to be a mismatch between the mission, vision and strategies of MDIs compared to their respective governments' reform processes. In particular, there is little evidence to illustrate a collaborative and co-ordinating relationship between various MDIs and the respective agencies responsible for implementing public service reforms (Olaopa, 2009:266). Similarly, there is also an absence of monitoring and evaluation systems to measure the impact of capacity development efforts in improving public sector performance (Economic Commission for Africa, 2003:45). This is coupled with an absence of institutional coordination mechanisms for improved performance in policy development and management (Newcomer & Allen, 2010:208). In view of the poor relationship between various MDIs and their governments, the literature similarly points to the absence of a well-coordinated and defined training strategy for senior managers (Agere, 1999:5).

Added to this, there appears to be a lack of appreciation of the value of training and development management and the contribution to improved performance and policy management. Rosenbaum and Kauzya (2007) contend that there is a prevalence of negative attitudes towards management training, especially amongst the senior, professional and technical cadres who do not necessarily believe that they require training (Rosenbaum & Kauzya, 2007:35). This pessimism is fuelled by the widespread political, economic, sociological and technological challenges faced by governments worldwide (Olaopa, 2013:149).

2.3.2.4 The Staffing and Skills Challenge

Following the challenges in policy coordination in the previous part, there appear to be staffing and remuneration issues which point to difficulties in recruiting suitably qualified and competent employees (Schwella, 1992:25; Mokgoro, 1992:31, Agere, 1999:6). Again, the challenges with regard to the funding of African MDIs are linked to the obstacles faced in attracting competent, qualified and professional staff which has ripple effects in creating

the perception that MDIs are ineffective and insignificant (Ayeni, n.d.:12; Economic Commission for Africa, 2003:45).

It is further pointed out that there is a void between many MDIs and the clientele they serve. This situation is specifically related to MDIs designing and delivering training programmes which are not based on training needs – one of the principle requirements for implementing capacity development interventions. This is exacerbated by an unwillingness amongst staff across the public service to embrace a performance culture by acknowledging that there are skills deficiencies as well as gaps in individual personal development plans (Oalopa, 2013:256).

Consequently, the overall impact of training has increasingly declined and, as a result, often been inadequately recognised as an important tool in improving the performance of public service staff, particularly in the changing environment in which the public service is being transformed. It is reasoned that part of the poor performance of these MDIs lie in their focus areas, which in many cases only address the development of conventional skills and knowledge (Balogun, 2008:31). While sound in principle, the sole focus on the development of generic skills is counterproductive and opposed to the customisation of interventions, which should rather emphasise the development of competencies required to enhance economic growth and development (Arinaitwe, 2009:33).

With the delivery of the capacity development interventions emphasising knowledge over competencies, Dresang (2009:22) highlighted that the emphasis of assessment focused largely on the level of knowledge and skills acquired through attending a capacity development intervention as opposed to the assessment of analytical and critical skills related to management. The Economic Commission for Africa (2003:45) has highlighted the need for a competency-based focus on training that includes not only the requisite knowledge and skills but also the attitude required to perform well.

Thus, the emerging strategic governance challenges require a new set of leadership and management competencies that are responsive and adaptable (Rosenbaum & Kauzya, 2007:10). The importance of these leadership and management

competencies were first raised over fifteen years ago during the third Pan-African Conference of Ministers of Civil Service hosted by the Namibian Government where it was emphasised that MDIs should address themes focusing on, firstly, the development of leadership for the future. Secondly, the promotion of public service excellence; followed by the cultivation of an esprit de corps for people-centred governance. The fourth theme highlights the need to strengthen the political and public service interface by fostering values related to openness, transparency and integrity; and finally, the improvement of intragovernmental and intergovernmental relationships (UNDESA, 2001:3).

In the identification of these themes as cross-cutting issues applicable to both developing and developed countries and related to MDIs, there have been some reservations. In this regard, key scholars and practitioners in the field have argued that despite all the efforts at studying and highlighting the fact that

... descriptive leadership and management competencies have been prescribed, there has not yet been a co-ordinated attempt to define how and in what ways public managers are best enabled to lead development in complex and uncertain contexts (McLennan & Orkin, 2009: 1041-1042).

2.3.2.5 The Marginalisation Challenge

Accordingly, with the absence of efforts in coordinating attempts of MDIs to impart leadership and management competencies to counter change, MDIs have been accorded lowered status and have consequently been marginalised (Agere, 1999:5; Economic Commission for Africa, 2003:47). The fact that many MDIs are financially reliant on their respective governments impacts negatively on their autonomy and the flexibility required for them to make independent decisions not only in recruiting and retaining their employees but also with regard to their ability to respond to the emerging capacity development demands from the public sector. This structural challenge exacerbates the distrust between the MDIs and their governments in carrying out collaborative projects aimed at public sector reform (Adamolekun, 2007:88; Agere, 1999:12).

For one, the leadership and management training, which would have been the flagship offering of MDIs, is often outsourced to external, better-resourced and private service providers (Johnson & Molloy, n.d.:21). In this regard, higher education institutions, through their business schools and schools of public leadership appear to be important role players in the capacity development of public servants. Hamza (2010) notes that sourcing training from higher education institutions was not free of challenges. One of the key challenges emphasised is that although higher education institutions are geared mostly to equip individuals with the requisite background knowledge of the public service, the aspects of addressing ethical behaviour, professionalism and customer-oriented attitudes are downplayed (Hamza, 2010:37).

In fact, one of the researchers in this field has noted the irony in that the consultancy and research functions have been increasingly referred to outside agencies to which governments usually pay heavily for services that could have equally been provided by their respective MDIs (Olaopa, 2013:257). In many cases, public sector clientele often opt for the more modern, bespoke training which would speak to the needs of those in need of the training (Agere, 1999:6). Together, these studies provide important insights into the manner in which MDIs should reposition themselves and ultimately adopt appropriate structures which resonate with the needs of their respective public services.

2.3.2.6 The Structure Challenge

Given the need for MDIs to reposition themselves, the challenge around structure, which appears to be an internal limitation of an organisation, requires discussion. While it may be easy to dismiss issues around structure from the high-level departure point of discussing public sector reform as insignificant, when explained in the public sector context, this aspect provides important insights into the nature and functioning of organisations (Clark, 1983:114). Applied to MDIs, the absence of funding, weak systems, poor conditions of service, a deficiency of incentives and rewards, poor recognition, and fear of becoming redundant, all aspects predominant across the public service, have also existed in the MDIs as many MDIs are themselves part of the public service (Agere, 1999:7).

Hence, the deficiencies around the structure of MDIs and their relationship with government are challenges. Since MDIs are expected to achieve the broader goals of improved management and leadership capacity for service delivery, their respective structures should be designed to fit their particular circumstances in meeting their objectives. In this regard, Bush (1997) suggests that for an organisation to be effective, rational norms, over personal preferences, should precede and guide procedures and processes. Thus, the manner in which an MDI is structured to coordinate and control its activities alongside government is essential to its effectiveness (Bush, 1997:45; Olaopa, 2009:138). However, MDIs have been plagued by the very same negative sentiments and aspects prevalent in the public service that they are required to transform, ranging from budget cuts, meagre conditions of service, goal uncertainty, inexperienced and poorly equipped staff, poor controls to unsuitable structures (Ayeni, n.d.:13; Arinaitwe, 2009:34).

To reinforce these, one study found major internal limitations related to the structure, leadership and management of the School of Government at the University of the Western Cape. These challenges highlighted were central to achieving the full potential of the institution's mandate and objectives. Furthermore, the study highlighted that challenges regarding structure have institutionalised a long-standing culture of faculties and departments which advocated for competition amongst one another for resources and funding (Hamza, 2010:87).

Therefore, in addressing the effectiveness and efficiency of an MDI, the assumptions underlying the structure that include its goals or objectives, rationality, leadership and authority and the adoption of systems should all follow a systematic approach consisting of four levels (Becher & Kogan, 1992:9). The first level, the central level, comprises the public sector, responsible for the planning, resourcing and monitoring of standards. The second level, the institutional level, focuses on the institution and determines the role and function of the MDI which is usually defined in legislation or policy. The third level, the basic level consists of the various departments or units within the MDI. The fourth and last level, is made up of lecturers, facilitators or staff who are largely responsible for shaping the curriculum and developing training programmes (Becher & Kogan, 1992:9).

With this structured approach in mind, experience has illustrated that flexible and well-structured systems are more efficient than mechanistic and bureaucratic systems (Swieringa & Wierdsma, 1992:45). The traditional public service structure has typically adopted a steep, pyramid-shaped structure. In many ways, this structure has been replicated and has prevailed across many MDIs, thus compounding the existing challenges they are facing (Mhone, 2003:8).

Recent developments have also shown that the overextended structures of MDIs are contributing to their poor performance (Adamolekun, 2007:85). This has facilitated a series of discussions and projects across various public sector organisations and international development agencies to enhance not only the structural repositioning of MDIs but also the role they ought to play in supporting public sector reform, as well as public sector management and leadership development. Part of these projects served to assess the impact of an MDIs services on improved or good governance (Kolisnichenko, 2005:23).

When relating the issue of funding of MDIs to the structure of MDIs, it is evident that diversifying new revenue sources requires a different structure and mindset, possibly in the form of new administrative and support offices that are run by specialised and functional experts. Every new revenue stream requires a project setup to be developed and linked to the core business of the MDI. With this new way of considering entrepreneurial and innovative organisational structures, it has been stated that:

In transforming, [...] the bureaucracy grows. But it is based on a change orientation very different from the old rule-enforcing, state-mandated bureaucracy that gets left behind. The old bureaucracy looked to the prevention of error; the new bureaucracy looks for the stimulation of initiative (Clark, 2003:108).

In other words, while introducing change, change-orientated administrative staff are all tasked with not only providing administrative support to the core centres but are also required to develop innovative revenue, generating projects in their respective functional and professional areas. These projects, geared not only at raising income, also establishes better internal cost control.

2.3.2.7 The Standards Challenge

Thus, examining the effects of effective capacity development of public leaders on improving governance (UNDESA, 2008:4) assumes that MDIs responsible for the capacity development of public sector leaders should constantly endeavour to attain excellence. Recent evidence, however, suggests that the expectations of these MDIs and their role in enhancing governance, management and leadership remains marginal and at best inconclusive (Arinaitwe, 2009:32). This may be attributed to an absence of commonly understood and shared standards of public administration and management (Bertucci, 2007:3; Rosenbaum, 2007:12; Kolisnichenko, 2005:31).

Moreover, there has been very little academic research on the measurement of training impact and transfer, let alone measuring excellence as it relates to the capacity development and performance of public servants (Broucker, 2014:13; Bouzguenda, 2014:24). However, there have been a number of high-level regional and international activities undertaken by the African Training and Research Center in Administration for Development (CAFRAD) and the United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (UNDESA) through its Division of Public Administration and Development Management (DPADM) to address these concerns. Subsequently, a UNDESA/DPADM/International Association of Schools and Institutes of Administration (IASIA) Expert Group meeting took place in Turin, Italy in 2002 where the impact of leadership capacity development was reaffirmed as a key priority in the New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD) organisation's public administration and governance programme from 2003 to 2005.

Along with the need to address the concerns related to strengthened public management and leadership, the UNDESA conference on national organisational arrangements for the delivery of public administration capacity development concluded that there is no single dominant approach in providing public administration capacity development to assess training impact (Kolisnichenko, 2005:32). During the same conference, it was also accepted that although some countries have established institutions and draw on networks

to support and provide training and education in public administration, there are no common standards to ensure the quality of these interventions.

Van der Krogt (2005:10) asserts the importance of standards in defining anticipated sets of conditions and requirements to assess and determine the desired level of quality. However, the use of standards dictates that all stakeholders consistently understand not only the definition but also the manner in which each standard is applied, considering the diversity of cultures, forms of government and other areas of uniqueness.

In this regard, the Final Report on the Standards of Excellence for Public Administration, Education and Training published by the UNDESA and the IASIA suggest that:

Because the public seeks high quality services, organisations in the public sector must be high performing. In order to perform highly, persons working in the public sector should be of the highest level of skill and preparation. Consequently, the institutions that educate and train these persons must be always striving for excellence because, most assuredly, better governance is fundamentally related to the more effective preparation of public administrators (IASIA, 2008:4).

Since the introduction of these standards, only one South African study (Hamza, 2010), which applied the standards of excellence, was conducted. The study focused on the role of higher education institutions in public sector education and training and in particular the School of Government at the University of the Western Cape, using the UNDESA Standards of Excellence for Public Administration Education and Training as an assessment tool. The study concluded that although the curricula, programmes and mode of delivery of programmes were adequate, there were concerns regarding the absence of set standards for the profession of public administration against which such institutions can be measured (Hamza, 2010:87).

2.3.2.8 The Leadership and Coordination Challenge

The previous section highlighted the existing gaps to determine and assess both the quality of public administration and management. By the same token, this issue is also related to the absence of capacity development standards for the public sector. The literature points to a paucity of institutional links to coordination and cooperation. This lack, in turn, appears to reflect the void when it comes to management development policies across countries as well as a lack of essential leadership and management competencies. These are mostly experienced at the top levels and have been prevalent across Africa (Schwella, 2015:30; Mokgoro, 1992:10; Newcomer & Allen, 2010:208). Schwella (2015:30), Mokgoro (1992:10) and Newcomer and Allen (2010:208) have equally expressed concern at the declining state of capacity development provision for public administrators in the South African public service.

These challenges, which may be related to the absence of systems thinking, may correspondingly contribute to the faulty design of unsuitable training programmes and curricula (Ayeni, n.d.:4). In developing countries, and particularly across Africa, there are certain prerequisites to ensure the effectiveness of capacity development. Firstly, the management buy-in of the institution is important. Secondly, systems to sustain and support such development in areas of the educational, human capital system, finance and policy development are required. Thirdly, the number of competent staff is important and it is important to take cognisance of the administrative culture of the public service (Williams, 2014:5).

By the same token, Mishra (1999) argues that the efficiency and effectiveness of service delivery rendered by government institutions is contingent on the management and leadership competencies of those leading such institutions. He further maintains that

... it becomes an immediate objective and goal for every government to ensure that its public servants are educated and trained properly and adequately to meet the challenges posed by globalization and supranational organisations on one hand and web technologies on the other (Mishra, 1999:14).

Overall, the discussion on the challenges seems to convey evidence indicating that African MDIs lack the institutional autonomy in terms of the control of financial resources, delivery of relevant and needs-based services and coordination and collaboration with other public institutions towards advancing the public sector reform strategy of government.

Added to these challenges, alongside operating with inappropriate structures, MDIs are further marginalised and are thus unable to make the necessary impact in developing the requisite management and leadership competencies required for the public service. It also is important to state that these challenges may be broad generalisations, which do not necessarily apply to all MDIs or to any specific MDI. The challenges are all themes which have been obtained across many sources and are sufficient to highlight the difficulties that many MDIs are experiencing. To maintain the quality of public administration, education and training together with adopting technology and innovation, these aforementioned studies support the argument that if MDIs are to achieve their purpose, an adoption of an appropriate governance, management and leadership development model is required.

Given this conceptual and contextual overview of capacity development in general, the historical background of MDIs, internationally, across the Commonwealth and across Africa, a brief illustration of the challenges followed. This account argued that, although much has been done both globally and across Africa, very little academic research into sourcing an appropriate model of governance, management and leadership development exists. The literature consulted focuses on the challenges MDIs face at the macro level and on the fact that most challenges are documented within the context of a broader reform agenda.

No studies focusing on repositioning an MDI from a management and organisational learning perspective were found. Accordingly, it was interesting to note that no study focusing on an analysis of the strategies, structure, systems, style, value system, staffing and skills of an MDI has been undertaken. The next section details the literature sourced and provides insight into the strategies, opportunities and strengths of MDIs. In doing so, it also explores whether MDIs are or have become learning organisations.

2.4 Strategies, Opportunities, Strengths and Achievements for Governance, Leadership and Management Development

As the previous section has illustrated, much work on MDIs have been largely undertaken by international organisations such as the United Nations and the World Bank. Later publications (Van Wart et al., 2015:18) focusing on management and leadership development and linking experiences of various countries to the GLOBE study on leadership revealed that challenges pertaining to the capacity development of public leaders in advancing the good governance agenda are still prevalent and continue to plague governments worldwide. Correspondingly, with the challenges that globalisation brings, it has become paramount that MDIs remain abreast of the changes both across the macro and micro level within which they would be required to operate. This is necessary in order to develop a continuous thinking process in evolving an MDI system for the public sector and, equally, a significant element of sustainable competitive advantage (Easterby-Smith, 1995:68; Zyani, 2001:12).

Thus, the next section discusses the strategies from three main perspectives. The first perspective views opportunities for MDIs to position themselves in view of the changing competencies required for a twenty-first-century public sector. The second considers the opportunities and development initiatives of MDIs from an international perspective. Thirdly, and finally, the last perspective approaches MDIs from a learning organisation perspective.

2.4.1 Twenty-first-century Public Sector Competencies

Meeting the challenges of the twenty-first century requires a holistic reconsideration of the public sector and, by definition, the MDIs that are expected to usher the changes towards reform (Agere, 1999:49). However, there have been issues with the lack of clarity around what twenty-first-century competencies consist of (Levy & Murnane, 2004:75).

A comparison of frameworks illustrated that while there are minor differences in where some areas are overemphasised, there is a consistency in identifying four common

competencies required for the future (Dede, 2010:67). These competencies also resonate with the broad, overarching themes and a need for an awareness of the political, economic, social technological, legal and environmental realities. While not new altogether, it has been stated that these competencies, including critical thinking, communication, creativity and collaboration, should be tied to broad, twenty-first-century themes and socio-economic outcomes and corresponding issues (Kay, 2010:xiii; Dede, 2010:67).

Themes of the Twenty-first Century		
Political and Global Awareness	Economic, Technological, Business and Entrepreneurial Awareness	Social, Civic, Legislative and Environmental Awareness
Competencies of the Twenty-first Century		
Creativity and Innovation	Information literacy	Flexibility and adaptability
Critical Thinking and Problem-solving	Media literacy	Initiative and self-direction
Communication	ICT literacy	Societal and cross-cultural
Collaboration	Leadership and responsibility	Productivity and accountability

Table 2.1: Twenty-first-century Competencies

In order to develop these four key competencies, the literature consulted calls for an opportunity to build on existing education frameworks which have up to now been confined to the education sector and in particular proposed for schools alone (Partnership for the 21st Century Skills, 2009:3). Correspondingly, the use of current education frameworks provides guidance in terms of answering questions which may also be related to the five main components of an MDI. These are the mission of an organisation, the principles of learning, the curriculum and assessment systems, the philosophy of instruction and practices, and the systemic support factors (Partnership for 21st Century Skills,

2009:4). Given the holistic nature of reform and its public sector focus, these education frameworks, while very useful, are not necessarily sanctioned internationally and are based on western models. Hence, the search for international capacity development initiatives that would be applicable to the public sector and their relevance for an African MDI continued.

2.4.2 International initiatives for governance, management and leadership development

To this end, the literature consulted found four key international initiatives of relevance. The first initiative is the United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (UNDESA) International Task Force on Standards of Excellence in Public Administration Education and Training. The second initiative was developed by the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (UNECA) Capacity Development Strategy, while the third initiative was developed under the Commonwealth Association of Public Administration and Management (CAPAM) Capacity Development Framework. The last initiative was also undertaken by the UN and is referred to as the UNDESA Standards of Excellence in Public Administration Education and Training.

The UNDESA and the IASIA have constituted the International Task Force on Standards of Excellence in Public Administration Education and Training. Through a series of collaborative meetings and surveys, the taskforce has produced a report containing a set of Standards of Excellence in Public Administration Education and Training which can be utilised as an instrument for capacity assessment and a reference for developing the capacity of MDIs.

The Task Force on Excellence in Public Administration Education and Training advocates eight standards of excellence devised for the purpose of public administration education and training. These standards are designed to firstly ensure public service-wide commitment across all service delivery areas. The second standard sets out to establish support and commitment towards advancing the public good and shared values, while the third standard advocates for a combination of education, practical and community service

experiences. The fourth standard acknowledges that faculty are fundamental in achieving success. Programmes which centre around inclusivity, including the expressed commitment of faculty to embracing diverse views and collaboration with the users form the basis of the fifth standard. The sixth standard focuses on the development of robust, current, responsive and focused curriculum. On the matter of resources, the seventh standard stresses the need for adequate resource allocation. The eighth and final standard advocates for a balance between collaboration and competition (Task Force on Standards of Excellence in Public Education and Training, 2008:5).

These standards clearly define the criteria, conditions and the expected level of performance to be achieved (Van der Krogt, 2005:7). Furthermore, it is a requirement for all stakeholders to not only have a common understanding of these measurements, but also to ensure that the assessment of quality is both valid and reliable. Equally, in the application of these standards, it is important to be mindful in considering the national and regional distinctness of context and culture (McFarland & Kang, 2013:13).

2.4.2.2 The United Nations Economic Commission for Africa Capacity Development Strategy

More recently, and on a continental level, the UN has launched the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (UNECA) Capacity Development Strategy, which advances Africa's common vision in achieving both the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and Agenda 2063 (UNESCO, 2016:5). This strategy, which assumes the adoption of common standards and approaches to enhance public administration and management, may be seen as complementary to the Commonwealth Foundation's efforts in streamlining capacity development albeit across the Commonwealth countries (Commonwealth Foundation, 2014:2).

Together, these two initiatives indicate that MDIs in Africa are faced with the arduous challenge of injecting new energy into these institutions of learning. As a result, these institutions can then serve as resource centres, develop reservoirs of new knowledge and skills and serve as centres of innovation, which the public service can tap into and utilise

productively to drive and achieve the goal of enhanced socio-economic development in Africa (World Bank, 2006:9). With this in mind, there is a deliberate move towards embracing a framework with consistent and common standards for capacity service delivery across the Commonwealth (Taylor & Clarke, 2008:37; OECD, 2006:29; Commonwealth Foundation, 2014:2). This collective drive towards embracing common standards in terms of capacity development across Commonwealth countries is explained in the next section outlining the rationale behind this approach.

2.4.2.3 The Commonwealth Association of Public Administration and Management Capacity Development Framework

The Commonwealth has been referred to as a collective of largely developing countries that have commonly adopted the English language. The members of this association embrace the values of good governance, democracy and respect for the rule of law. Its membership comprises fifty-three countries, a large majority of diverse races, cultures and religions vastly separated in geographic terms and at various phases of development (Commonwealth Network, 2016:12). This uniquely positions it to be an organisation which may ideally be utilised by member states to engage in collective issues of commonality and interest. Closely linking public sector reform initiatives with capacity development, the Commonwealth Association of Public Administration and Management (CAPAM) has facilitated a governance network with its core purpose to promote the work of MDIs within the Commonwealth member states.

The development of this global policy network, which began in 2006, aims at sharing information and resources to member states towards capacity development efforts in strengthening good governance and in achieving the sustainable development goals. Members of the Commonwealth all subscribe to the fundamental values as contained in international agreements and declarations. These agreements embrace the values and principles of democracy, good governance, the separation of powers between the legislature, the executive and the judiciary, transparency, rule of law and protection of human rights, fundamental freedoms, and the need for a well-trained public service.

The literature highlights that over the past decade, the CAPAM governance network has developed a capacity development framework. This framework allows members to share various capacity development experiences, tools and best practices in order to promote the development and refinement of new competencies (Commonwealth Foundation, 2014:21). At the same time, the framework, which consists of four stages, considers capacity development to be a “complex, holistic process that takes place at different levels of the system in a web of interconnectedness” (Commonwealth Foundation, 2014:21).

These four stages are conceptualised in terms of a sequential, cyclical and developmental process which evolves over time amidst responding to the internal and external environment. The first stage is the ‘Consensus Stage’. This stage focuses on reaching consensus regarding the capacity development needs required and their link to the development goals. There is emphasis on the type of capacities required and the target audience to be developed. The second stage, ‘Building Capacity’ builds on stage one, where both the individual competencies and those of the organisation are highlighted for strengthening, particularly in terms of strengthening the strategy, structures, procedures and systems. Stage three is the ‘Application Stage’ where there is an examined need to improve the existing implementation for capacities, procedures, structures, and systems for enhanced performance. The fourth and final stage, ‘Institutionalisation’ focuses on heightened regulatory support for new and improved systems. Furthermore, this stage also emphasises the need for a culture of continuous improvement and the maintenance of an enhanced, enabling environment to foster development. (Commonwealth Foundation, 2014:22).

Accordingly, these stages are reflected in a report by the OECD on National Schools of Government which highlights the importance of internal governance and management as one of the key success factors of schools of government or PSTIs. The report further indicates that the establishment of the right structures, employees, with clearly defined roles and responsibilities of each role-player is critical (OECD, 2017:98-100). The recommendations of this study highlight the importance of clarifying the mandates, roles responsibilities and co-ordination mechanisms of these schools in view of providing capacity development to the public sector. Other key recommendations on internal

governance include the need for these schools of government to align their services and programmes with government priorities through systematic and extended stakeholder consultations and inputs (OECD, 2017:101-102).

While these efforts are sound and are positive developments in repositioning MDIs and in particular in improving the governance, leadership and management development functions, there are still challenges pertaining to leadership and coordination aspects across MDIs that remain. Hence, the issue around whether MDIs have become learning organisations is a recurring question and is discussed in the next section.

2.4.3 Management Development Institutes as Learning Organisations

The third perspective considers MDIs as learning organisations. In this regard, organisational learning has been described as a process which encourages the uncovering of, and subsequent correcting of mistakes or faults within an organisation. Put differently, the organisation's strategy, policies, plans or values are subjected to internal scrutiny in order to change what is not working and improve the existing state (Argyris & Schön, 1978:2). Similarly, it is maintained that organisational learning occurs when three prerequisites are met. Firstly, the work processes are aligned towards meeting the organisation's strategy; secondly, there is a constant re-evaluation of the relevance of the organisation's strategy; and finally, the process of evaluating the effectiveness of an organisation's strategy is a prerequisite for continuous organisational learning (Argyris & Schön, 1978:2-3).

Another renowned scholar suggests that while organisational learning is paramount in improving the performance of an organisation, very few can lay claim to be learning organisations (Senge, 1990:46). The concept of the learning organisation has been defined in many ways by various authors. The most suitable definition for this dissertation is advanced by Burgoyne (1992:323) who defines it as an organisation which "continuously transforms itself in the process reciprocally linked to the development of all its members" (Burgoyne, 1992:323). This definition suggests that all members of an organisation play an equal part in the learning process and therefore learn from each

other. Similarly, Senge's (1990:48) definition includes the ability of an organisation to develop and expand its existing capacity in creating a desirable future. He has further argued that the reason of an organisation's failure is its very inability to learn over time (Senge, 1990:48).

Henceforth, organisational learning, when seen in the context of consultancy services and action research rendered by a MDI should lead to both policy development and analysis. Arguably, given this three-pronged mandate, staff and faculty of MDIs are charged with constantly re-evaluating, reinventing and improving their skills, systems and processes. This three-pronged mandate is a key success factor which determines the "extent to which [organisations] could claim to be learning organisations" (Oalopa, 2013:24). This claim is yet to be proven, given that the literature review has not highlighted any academic works of MDIs which have proven the contrary. Other authors support the notion that there is still more research required in all areas of organisational learning (Mabey & Finch-Lees, 38:2007; Easterby-Smith, 2011:230).

The literature on organisational learning and how MDIs learn is disappointing. Firstly, although much of the international, regional and continental papers, strategies and conferences document the challenges and experiences, many (if not all of them) include how these MDIs have either become learning organisations or not (Olaopa, 2013:24). One possible reason for this is that there is uncertainty as to whether organisations, as collective entities and as part of the public service, could learn in the first place. Secondly, the structure and positioning of a MDI determines the degree of organisational learning. Argyris and Schön (1978) stated that organisational learning is often impeded by the complexity of its structure (Argyris & Schön, 1978:56). Conversely, other researchers later found that mechanistic, bureaucratic organisations with hierarchical structures and excessively centralised controls do not encourage learning (Swieringa & Wierdsma, 2010:25; Argyris, 1992:32).

Another possible aspect that influences a MDI's ability to learn is that there are no best practice solutions. Instead, each MDI has to find and develop its own learning capability and cannot simply seek to replicate something that has worked in another organisation

(Hawkins, 1994:74). Finally, from a public service reform perspective, the literature points to the need for a learning governance approach (Schwella, 2015:13) to explore issues of management and leadership accountability and their impact on service delivery (Afegbua & Adejuwon, 2012:142). This approach is critical for a MDI to implement innovative projects for which the existing structures are inadequate (Olaopa, 2009:17).

Considering this evidence, it seems that a holistic, in-depth exploratory study focusing on governance, highlighting the unique strengths and contexts of MDIs and their ability to become learning organisations, is warranted. The evidence presented in this section further suggests that in order to remain relevant, MDIs are required to become learning organisations.

Following this analysis, the next section connects the literature review and literature sourced pertaining to MDIs and utilises the McKinsey 7S model to iteratively meet the objectives of this study in developing a model for governance, leadership and management development. The choice of selecting the McKinsey 7S model was occasioned by the need to find an appropriate analytical tool which would analyse the institutional setup of MDIs, given the nature of their challenges. There has been no single all-embracing model for the study of education or training management (Ribbins, 1985:223).

The absence of this model may be attributed to the multifaceted and multilayered perspectives and role players in both the education and training realm. Another author supports this by arguing that the quest for a theory applicable to the education and training context is elusive as the variety of perspectives relate to unique situations and are likely to change depending on the nature of the problem and the context (Kiggundu, 1991:33). As such, there is little consensus on validating what is scientifically true, as several perspectives may be valid simultaneously (House, 1981:17). Hence, the use of the McKinsey 7S model, which will be discussed in the next section, was deemed an appropriate tool with which to analyse MDIs, given their unique contexts, challenges and perspectives.

2.5 An Organisational Design Framework for Management Development Institutes

The McKinsey 7S model is a model which has been extensively applied as a tool at business and management schools (Pascale & Athos, 1981:84; Peters & Waterman, 1982:32). Despite its practical use and popularity, not many studies have utilised it in the context of analysing education and training institutions, much less in the context of analysing MDIs. While the original model was developed in the late 1970s by consultants Peters and Waterman of the McKinsey consulting company, it has been expanded and reconceptualised over the past 30 years (Peters & Waterman, 1982:3). The model has been used as both a diagnostic tool and an analytical tool to describe the activities, structure, and exchanges of individuals within an organisation. By focusing initially on organisational effectiveness, the McKinsey 7S model has evolved from analysing the structure, style, reporting lines and values to analysing the effectiveness of coordination (Peters & Waterman, 1982:8). The McKinsey 7S model consists of seven interrelated elements, namely strategy, structure, systems, shared values, style, staff and skills. All seven elements are said to influence an organisation's ability to learn and transform itself. There is an absence of hierarchy amongst all seven elements which suggests that there will be difficulty effecting change in one area without affecting all seven. Figure 2.2 below provides a graphic representation of the McKinsey 7 S model.

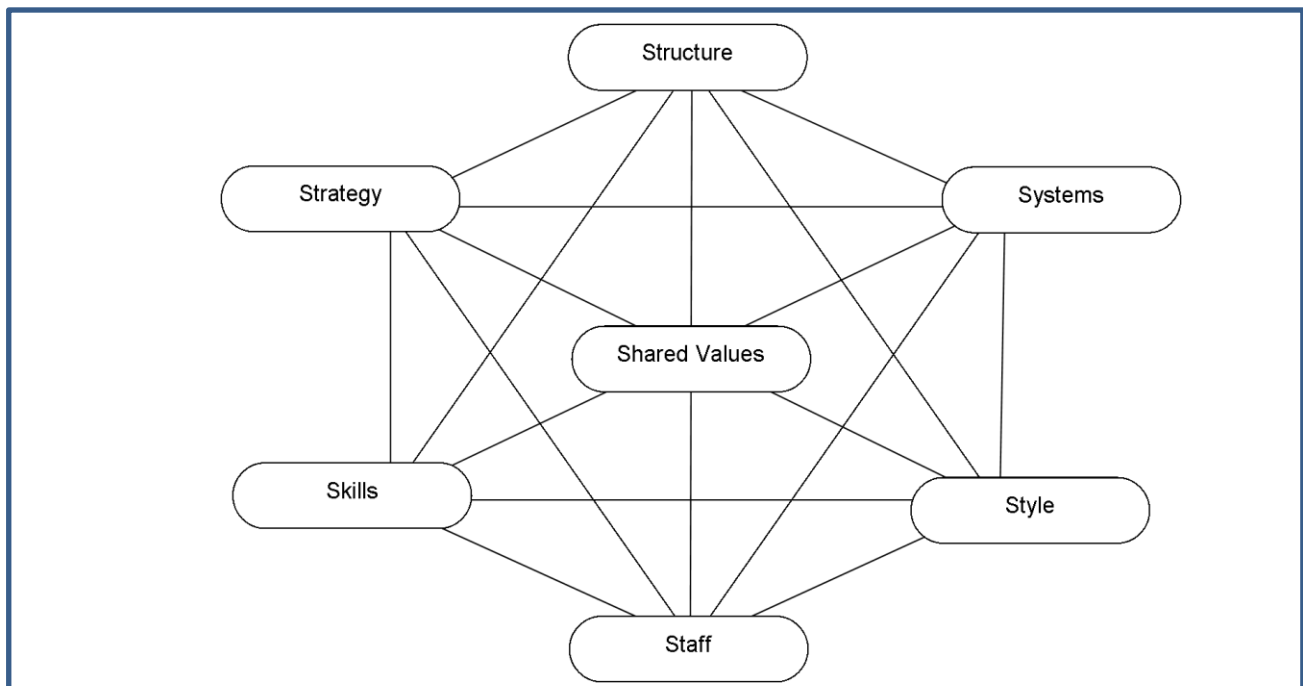


Figure 2.2: The McKinsey 7S Model

Each of these seven components are briefly explained next, beginning with the first three, which, according to the framework, represent the hard elements, followed by the remaining four soft elements.

The first S represents the 'Strategy'. This refers to the manner in which an organisation's resources and alignment of resources are equipped to achieve its objective. In this regard, there should be two main strategies when applied to an education and training context: firstly, to develop and align the institutional strategy to the mandate, mission and objectives of the institution and, secondly, to exercise appropriate leadership to achieve the objectives, implement plans and meet the standards (McKinsey & Company, 2008:3).

The second S stands for 'Structure'. The structure reflects the formal pattern of relationships amongst people within an organisation and the manner in which they are organised in terms of hierarchy, reporting lines, roles and responsibilities (Bush, 1997:45). It is also asserted that change is inhibited by rigid and bureaucratic structures (Argyris, 2010:25). Systems reflect the use of the third 'S', which, within an organisational context make reference to the technical tools, processes and mechanisms in place for staff to utilise in order to achieve their objectives. It is useful to indicate differences between closed and open systems in the context of this dissertation. Closed systems, such as bureaucracies, work in isolation from the external influences of the broader environment which influence them. In direct contrast, open systems, such as the private sector advance a more robust and interactive relationship between an organisation and the external environment (Everard & Morris, 1990:155).

The fourth 'S' relates to 'Shared Values'. In this regard, each organisation possesses a common set of unifying beliefs, values, behaviour, traits and unique characteristics. Edwards (1997) argues how members of an organisation collectively share similar beliefs, behaviour and characteristics typical of the organisational culture. How the organisation deals with conflicting ideas or discordant information reveals a great deal about its predisposition to learning (Edwards, 1997:236). The fifth 'S' refers to the 'Style'. The style of an organisation refers to the leadership and culture expressed within the organisation (Argyris, 1994:81). It has also been suggested that the leadership styles

within an organisation shape its culture (Schein, 1997:240). Furthermore, culture contributes towards organisational excellence. Hence, an organisational culture that encourages openness, confidence and performance across the organisation has leadership that produces changes and focuses on the changing needs of its clients (Nelson & Quick, 2007:46). The 'Staff', the sixth 'S' are defined in terms of the framework as all those who consist of all categories of employees on all levels. The final 'S', 'Skills', refers to the collective ability of all employees within the organisation to perform according to its mandate and desired objectives.

Alshafer (2013) used the McKinsey 7S model to assess the readiness of three colleges in Mosul University in Iraq to implement e-learning. Building on the work of other researchers, which also utilised the McKinsey 7S model to conduct an ERP Readiness Assessment (Payam & Ahad Zare, 2011:23), these studies outlined critical indicators emphasising trust, training and education, students' skills and shared beliefs. Again, both studies outlined the need for research areas to focus not only on designing an organisational structure where all seven elements are well aligned but to also consider the external environment.

Only one other study (Van Rensburg, 2008), a master's thesis, was found which utilised the McKinsey 7S model within the context of education and training. This study recommended that due to the misalignment of all seven elements in the McKinsey 7s model for the organisation under study, further areas for research be warranted. In particular, the data collection tool used in the study only relied on the use of a questionnaire, which in itself carries a number of limitations (Van Rensburg, 2008:133).

2.6 Summary

The first part of this dissertation provided the context and the concepts and examined the challenges affecting MDIs. While there are a number of pertinent issues, there are also corresponding opportunities which present themselves through the strategies, opportunities and initiatives at an international level. This is followed by the second section which posed two fundamental questions: "Is there a viable model on which to base the

notions of managing MDIs?” and “Given the time that has elapsed in establishing these institutions, have MDIs become learning organisations?”

Thus, a number of important themes emerge from the literature discussed so far. Firstly, with the changing role of the public service, the corresponding challenges of promoting good governance, management and leadership development should be aligned to the reform agenda to have any relevance and therefore impact. Given the range of unique challenges and context-specific challenges, there is a need to move away from the idea that a one-size-fits-all approach should be adopted.

Similarly, in view of the unique socio-economic challenges that each country faces, an appropriate funding model befitting the context should be developed. This is likely to address role displacement and may ensure the ability of an MDI to remain focused and deliver on its mandate, thus staying sustainable. Appropriate policies which advance the implementation and support of a capacity development framework is required. Such a framework should be aligned with a national training policy for the public sector.

To improve the quality of governance, a process of adoption and implementation of common and shared standards for public administration is required. In providing for the rapid speed of change and use of technology, there is also a need for MDIs to be innovative, hence the importance of the virtuous relationship between capacity evaluation, training, research and consultancy. Finally, the study and repositioning of a MDI should not only focus on macro-level but also micro-level factors.

This chapter provided an overview of the literature on governance, management and leadership development. Brief definitions of these main concepts were presented, while at the same time sketching the context and the interrelationships amongst all three concepts. In addition to these definitions, a historical background of MDIs, both internationally and across Commonwealth Africa, was given, highlighting the institutional architecture of governance, leadership and management development, strategies, clientele, challenges, opportunities, strengths and achievements. An emerging question contemplating whether

MDIs have become learning organisations was posed, given that the literature sourced indicates the need for MDIs to position themselves as learning organisations.

Although this question is not fully answered in this chapter, it does underscore the research aim and the initial objectives which were to firstly, broadly describe the related challenges surrounding the context of governance, leadership and management development; and secondly, to conduct a review of the literature and conceptual frameworks on governance, leadership and management development and their relationship to capacity development. The chapter also introduced the McKinsey 7S model in further developing an emerging theoretical framework for a governance, management and leadership development model for a twenty-first-century public service.

The next chapter details three international cases in exploring the existing operational and normative models of these institutions and at the same time provides inputs towards further developing a normative model of governance, management and leadership development.

Chapter 3: Comparative Perspectives of Governance, Management and Leadership Development

“... where people continually expand their capacity to create the results they truly desire, where new and expansive patterns of thinking are nurtured, where collective aspiration is set free, and where people are continually learning to see the whole together” (Senge, 1990:3).

3.1 Introduction

The previous chapter provided an overview of the literature sources and ongoing developments pertaining to governance, management and leadership development. The literature review covered the definitions, context and historical background of MDIs – both internationally and across Commonwealth Africa. Throughout the literature consulted, a number of common challenges affecting MDIs in Africa were highlighted, giving rise to an emerging and key question: Given the number of years that have elapsed, have MDIs become learning organisations? The answer to this question is important, given that the literature sourced indicates the need for MDIs to position themselves as learning organisations.

With this emerging question, the study advocates the use of case studies which have been long established when studying capacity development in presenting detailed analysis of unique country contexts, challenges, lessons learnt and recommendations for future improvements (Rule & John, 2011:21; Yin, 2014:120; Haruna & Kannae, 2013:493; Mishra, 1999:14; Van Wart & Hondeghe, 2015:13; Rosenbaum & Kauzya, 2007:35). This caveat is important as it provides the rationale for the choice of methodology adopted for this study. Similarly, the selection of GTM as an analytic and methodological tool provides the basis for comparisons across cases. As described in the first chapter, the literature, documents on MDIs and interviews with representatives of the case institutions studied generate categories which are, in turn, grounded through the process by which they are created (Bryant & Charmaz, 2007:166). Through this process, a provisional framework using the emerging categories is developed and is used to document the case

institutions. This framework provides the approach to assess the current state of the case institutions.

As a result, this chapter attempts to relate governance, management and leadership development and explores whether organisational learning is possible through three case studies of MDIs in three Commonwealth countries. This ties in with the importance of this chapter as laying the foundation for the Namibian case. In turn, this foundation is the basis for the development of the model, which is one of the key outcomes of this study. Before proceeding to the chapter objectives and the rationale for the selection of the Commonwealth case studies, it is necessary to provide an outline of the chapter in the next section.

3.2 Chapter Objectives and Outline

Following the introduction, this chapter converges the themes of governance, management and leadership development. With the study employing both GTM and the use of multiple-case design, the focus of the chapter is on three country experiences and cases sourced from the Commonwealth. For this study, three Commonwealth countries, South Africa, the United Kingdom and India have been selected, given their membership status and their exemplary approaches and experiences towards advancing management and leadership development across their respective public sectors. Furthermore, each of the cases is documented in their current form and state. The case studies are further analysed in the next chapter, chapter four, which then allows for comparisons to the Namibian case, which is described and further discussed in chapter five.

The current chapter accordingly begins with a brief introduction of the Commonwealth as well as the rationale for the selection of the three countries. Following the methodological approaches detailed in the first chapter, the results of the case comparisons taken from official and non-official documentation and interviews are presented. The outcomes of the analysis across these three cases inform the development of the model discussed in chapter four.

3.3 Rationale for the Selection of Cases: The Commonwealth

As briefly mentioned in chapter two, the Commonwealth refers to an association of fifty-three countries at various levels of development and which have commonly adopted the English language (Commonwealth Network, 2016:1). Apart from espousing the ideology behind good governance, the separation of powers, transparency and the rule of law, which includes the protection of universal rights and freedoms, there is also a collective understanding that member countries embrace and advance the capacity development agenda for improved public services. The Commonwealth countries are categorised in terms of five regions, namely Africa, Asia, the Caribbean and the Americas, Europe, and the Pacific (Commonwealth Network, 2016:1).

For this study, inclusion criteria for the selection of the three country cases in this study include firstly, the use of English as one of the official languages; secondly, its status as a Parliamentary democracy; thirdly the presence of diverse population groups; fourthly, membership of the United Nations (UN) and the World Trade Organisation (WTO); and finally, the establishment and relationship of a MDI or school of government with the public service in terms of its mandate and role within the context of public service reform. This approach is recommended by Yin (2014) who advocates that in using multiple methods of data collection and analysis, the traditional sampling criteria and logic is irrelevant (Yin, 2014:61). Hence, the selection of cases consider the literal and theoretical replications which in turn relies on a researcher's discretionary judgment, rather than on formulaic criteria (Yin, 2014:61). These cases require prior knowledge of the exemplary nature of the outcomes, and at the same time establishing a literal replication of the criteria and conditions across these cases.

With the initial criteria described in the previous section determining the inclusion of the countries, the three countries were also selected since they were of explicit interest, given the technical support offered by these countries to Namibia in the initial conceptualisation and development of its own MDI. This should not be assumed to be a limitation since this study was designed as both an exploratory and descriptive study. Additionally, this

approach is consistent with the sampling procedures common in studies using GTM (Creswell, 2011:39; Babbie & Mouton, 2010:297).

In addition to the rationale in the forgoing section, two countries from Asia and Europe respectively, namely India and the UK met the inclusion requirements. South Africa was also found to be suitable in comparable terms, given that it shares a border with Namibia and has many aspects in common with Namibia, including the recognition and trade of the Rand, South Africa's currency currently accepted and used in Namibia (Commonwealth Network, 2016:1). The MDIs set up across these three countries have expressed their commitment towards delivering capacity development interventions across their respective public services to ensure that the core skills and competencies required for better service delivery are developed (Commonwealth Network, 2016:1). Therefore, for this dissertation, South Africa (Africa), India (Asia) and the UK (Europe) were selected from three of the five regions of the Commonwealth as they have similar characteristics, which were briefly discussed and will be discussed at greater length in the section detailing their corresponding MDIs.

The case study approach, as situated within this chapter is utilised as a method of enquiry that examines an existing phenomenon in an in-depth and real-world context (Yin, 2014:16). Furthermore, as an outcome of examining the phenomenon, there would be an improved understanding which would lead to later enhancing the contextual experiences relevant to the phenomenon itself. Therefore, in defining the case(s) for this study, the unit of analysis covers the countries themselves and the external forces shaping their respective MDIs. Each of the country cases contain embedded units of analysis as they are compared to each other.

The comparisons include, and specifically outline, the similarities and differences of the cases according to five emerging criteria and categories. Briefly, the first category looks at the institutional setup and governance arrangements. This is followed by the second category which is the organisational strategy. The third category looks at the organisational systems, while the fourth looks at the organisational culture and shared values. The fifth and final category focuses on the organisational competencies.

With these categories and criteria defined, other boundaries such as the respondents of the institution as well as the timeframe need to be defined. This process of 'bounding' the case assists in determining the scope of data collection, the respondents and the context itself (Yin, 2014:33-34). In studying the phenomenon of MDIs, the country context is considered as influencing the role and function of the MDI context, while within the MDIs themselves, the respondents are employees of the MDI who function at a senior management level. The next part of this chapter details the case studies and the case institutions.

3.4 The Case Studies

From the discussion in the previous section, it can be seen that all three of the case studies and institutions will be analysed and categorised according to the six principal categories such as the context, governance arrangements, strategy and other variables. My involvement and exposure of the researcher to all three institutions began with the establishment of the Namibian MDI, the NIPAM in 2011 when I was appointed as an organisational development specialist. Hence, relating the case according to its boundedness in terms of the timeframe, the relationships with MDI officials which were developed during the familiarisation and study visits over a six-year period between 2011 and 2016 across all three institutions have evolved and have subsequently formed the basis of the field notes and primary data collected during this time frame. With the rationale for the selection of the cases explained in the first chapter, the first case study focuses on the National School of Government in South Africa, which is discussed in the next section.

3.4.1 Case Study 1: The National School of Government, South Africa

South Africa is classified as a republic with an executive president. Its legislature is the Parliament of the Republic of South Africa under a constitution which came into effect in February 1997. The bicameral legislature comprises the 400-seat National Assembly – elected every five years by universal adult suffrage under proportional representation – and the 90-seat National Council of Provinces with direct representation of members of

provincial governments. The president is elected by the National Assembly and can serve a maximum of two five-year terms. The president appoints the deputy president and the cabinet (Government of the Republic of South Africa, 1996:31). South Africa initially joined the Commonwealth in 1931, left in 1961 and rejoined in 1994 (Commonwealth Network, 2016:2). With a population of 52,776,000 in 2013, the UN Human Development Indicator places South Africa at number 118. The official languages of South Africa are Afrikaans, English, Ndebele, Sesotho sa Leboa, Sesotho, Setswana, siSwati, Tsonga, Venda, Xhosa and Zulu. The people of South Africa are seen to be the country's most important asset. It is therefore an expectation that all South Africans within this diverse ethnic and language groupings are expected to collectively contribute towards the South African socio-economic development agenda (Government of the Republic of South Africa, 2003:vii). In order to do so, the South African government requires the requisite capacity to respond to a fast-paced changing external environment characterised by an increased use of information and mobile technology coupled with an increase in the knowledge, skill and ability of public sector employees to rise to the challenge (Kroukamp, 2003:3; ANC, 2007; Memo – Field Notes, 2016; University of Johannesburg, 2015:8).

The Public Services Act, 1994 (Act 103 of 1994) and the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 both provide the legislative framework within which public service institutions are expected to function in South Africa. Section eight (8) of the Public Services Act, defines the South African Public service as including all employees who are holders of fixed or permanent positions, those who are additional appointments, and employees under the educational institutions of the State. Members of the National Defence Force, the Intelligence Agency and the South African Secret Police are excluded from this definition as specified in Section two (2), subsection 2 of the Public Services Act.

According to a Human Resource Development Report (2003), which reviewed the performance and capacity of the public service, it was recommended that capacity development for all three spheres of Government require urgent attention. The Report, undertaken by the Policy Coordinating and Advisory services almost fifteen years ago, highlights persistent challenges related to poor performance and weaknesses in the governance framework of the South African government (Government of the Republic of

South Africa, 2003:vi). It is against this background that the National Skills Development Strategy (NSDS), the provisions of the Skills Development Act, 1998, and the Public Sector Education and Training Authority (PSETA) were established to oversee the implementation of capacity development and training of public servants (Government of the Republic of South Africa, 1998:32). The custodian of the Public Service Human Resources Development (HRD) strategy is a strategy compiled by the Department of Public Service and Administration (DPSA) and is responsible for policy formulation and, together with the National School of Government (NSG), for policy implementation. Amongst these role players, the Department of Provincial and Local Government is tasked with the capacity development at subnational government level or within the local government sphere through Provincial Training Centres and other stakeholders such as the South African Local Government Association (SALGA). The Provincial Training Centres derive their respective mandates from the National Skills Development Strategy (NSDS), the Skills Development Act, 1998 and the Public Service Human Resource Development Strategy which includes a provincial perspective (Government of the Republic of South Africa, 2003:vii).

3.4.1.1 Context and Background

The National School of Government was part of the previous Commission for Administration. At that point in time, it was known as the Public Service Training Institute (PSTI) and it was established as a chief directorate (Memo – Field Notes, 2016; SAMDI, 2007:8). Between 1994 and 1996, the PSTI transitioned into the South African Management Development Institute (SAMD) which was initially established as a Schedule 2 department. By 1996, the department, headed by a deputy director-general, was fully established (SAMD, 2007:8). The period between 1996 and 2008 was devoted to the restructuring and the renewed efforts aimed at improving the relevance, quality and effectiveness of its programmes. After 12 years, the Public Administration Leadership and Management Academy (PALAMA) was eventually launched (PALAMA, 2009:11). Part of the efforts of the new PALAMA was to lay a sound foundation in building a capable and developmental state as envisaged in the National Development Plan. Being a continuous work in process, the PALAMA took another six years to finally transition into the present

National School of Government (NSG) which was launched on 21 October 2013 (National School of Government, 2015:19). The NSG is expected to operate as a centre of excellence for the civil service, a nucleus of knowledge and learning, and a competitive institution of choice for learning. It also seeks to remain responsive to the emerging service delivery and recurrent systemic challenges and to be responsive to the context within and across the spheres of government (Memo, 2014; National School of Government, 2015:20).

3.4.1.2 Institutional Setup and Governance Arrangements

The principles and values of public administration are enshrined in the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 (hereafter the South African Constitution), all of which form the basis for efficient and effective public service delivery. As part of the institutional setup and foundational values, the NSG believes that the constitutional principles of the South African Constitution should also be embedded in the value system of all public servants and across and through all capacity development and training initiatives (Section 195, Subsection 1[c] and [h] of the South African Constitution).

The advancement of the capacity development initiatives is articulated in Section 195 of the South African Constitution, detailing the principles and values of public administration, and forms the basis of several policy frameworks which have been developed in support of training and development (Section 195 of the South African Constitution). The NSG derives its mandate from the Public Service Amendment Act, 2007 (Act 30 of 2007) which directs that a training institution listed as a national department shall be under the control of the Minister for Public Service and Administration (Government of the Republic of South Africa, 2008).

The mandate enables the NSG “to provide such training or cause such training to be provided or conduct such examinations or tests or cause such examinations or tests to be conducted” (Section 6, Subsection 3[a] of the Public Service Amendment Act, 2007). Based on this legislative provision, the head of the NSG may, with the approval of the minister, decide on courses which may be prescribed as qualifications for the

appointment or transfer of persons in or to the public service. Under this provision, the Minister may also “issue diplomas or certificates or cause diplomas or certificates to be issued to persons who have passed such examinations” (Section 6, Subsection 3[b] of the Public Service Amendment Act, 2007).

The Public Administration Management Act (Act 11 of 2014) was promulgated in December 2014. This Act, also known as the PAM Act, supports the fundamental values and principles central to the administration of the public service and similarly reinforces Section 195 of the South African Constitution. There are explicit references which refer to the establishment of the National School of Government, as well as additional clauses which provide for: training and the development of capacity of the public service; the use of information and communication technology across government and for the Minister to set minimum norms and standards required for public administration (Government of the Republic of South Africa, 2014).

The Principal reports to the Minister of Public Service and Administration (MPSA) as per Schedule 1 of the Public Service Amendment Act, (Government of the Republic of South Africa, 2008) which also classifies the NSG as a national department. The department has its budget line and vote. Parallel to the NSG are the Public Service Commission and the Department of Public Service and Administration respectively which also report to the MPSA (National School of Government, 2015:12).

The executive management of the NSG constitutes two percent of the full staff complement. These are high level officials who report directly to the principal and comprise the Deputy Director-General: Specialised Services; the Deputy Director-General: Training Management and Delivery; the Branch Head: Training Policy and Planning; the Chief Financial Officer; and the Deputy Director-General: Corporate Management (National School of Government, 2015:2). To support the principal, there are 14 chief directors who are each responsible for their respective functions under the various branches and seven directors who occupy positions largely in the supporting branches and units (National School of Government, 2015:13).

The NSG has a total staff complement of 227 posts. Of the 227, 89 are administrative staff while the remaining 138 comprise the organisational development component. Figure 3.1 provides an overview of the NSG organogram as at 1 February 2017 (National School of Government, 2015:21).

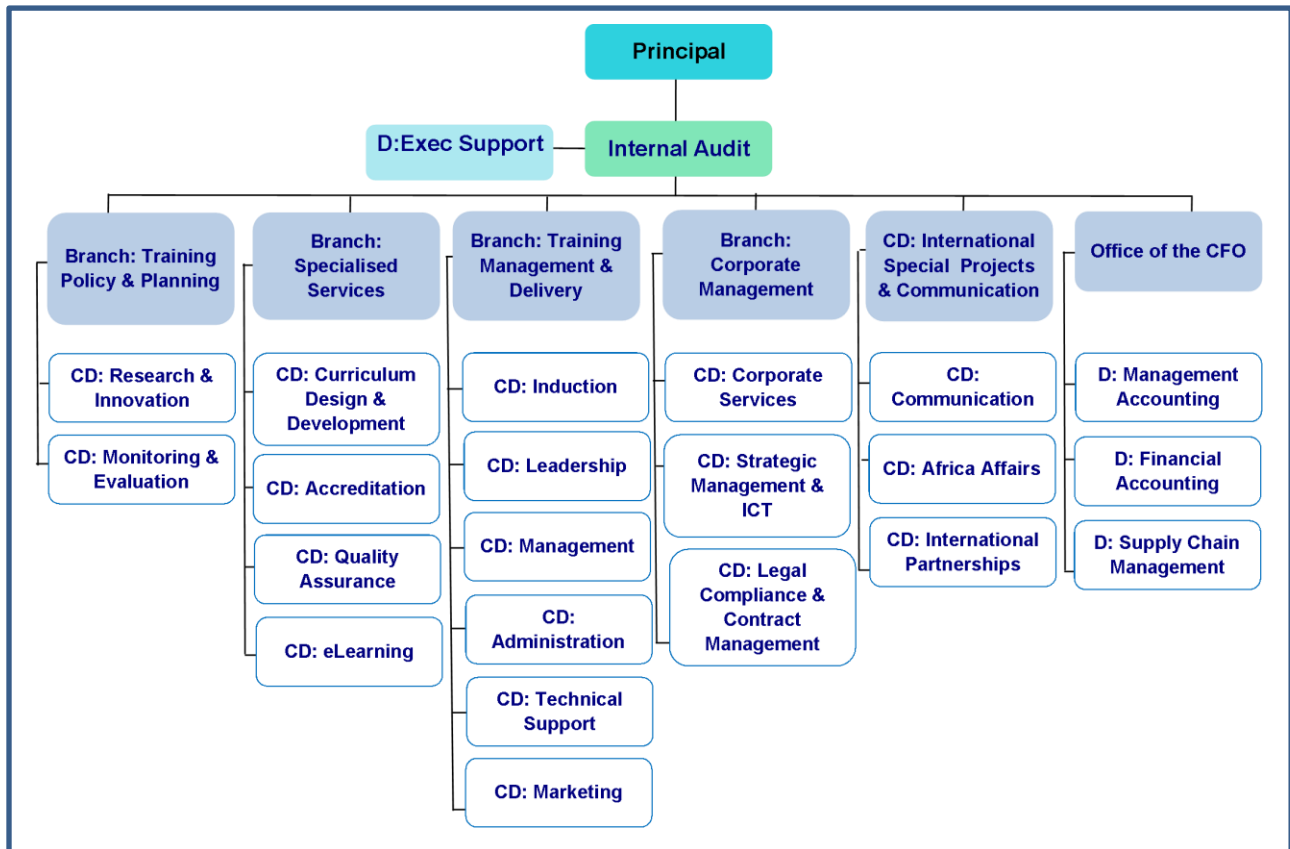


Figure 3.1: Organogram of the NSG (National School of Government, 2015:21)

According to the NSG organogram, the head of the NSG is the accounting officer and the Principal, who is not only responsible but also accountable for the administration of the institution. The position is currently supported by the Directorate of Executive Support to ensure that the transitory arrangements from PALAMA to the NSG are in place and are implemented. As part of the administrative assistance to the accounting officer and the core businesses of the NSG, the Office of the Chief Financial Officer (CFO) and the Internal Audit Unit report directly to the Principal, as do the International, Special Projects and Communication, Corporate Management, Training Management and Delivery, Specialised Services and, finally, Training Policy and Planning Branches. These branches

are collectively responsible for fulfilling the core functions of the NSG (National School of Government, 2015:23).

As a supporting branch, the Corporate Management Branch houses corporate services, strategic management and the ICT, and the unit dealing with legal issues, compliance and contract management. Communications, Africa Affairs and International Partnerships all fall under International, Special Projects and Communications respectively. The research and innovation functions as well as the monitoring and evaluation functions reside under the Training Policy and Planning branch. Curriculum design, quality assurance, accreditation and e-learning fall under the branch of Specialised Services. There are six separate units responsible for the induction, leadership and management programmes which together with administration, technical support and marketing fall under the Training Management and Delivery branch (National School of Government, 2015:23; Memo – Field Notes, 2016).

With all these various units and reporting structures, a critical success factor highlighted in a recently released report for MDIs to be successful is that of leadership (University of Johannesburg, 2015:8). In the same vein, issues around the existing governing and governance structures were highlighted as requiring attention, indicating that the more experienced DGs/Principals heading the NSG fared better and were more successful in achieving organisational objectives (University of Johannesburg, 2015:8). Finally, the report emphasised that the NSG should take note of the development agenda of the African National Congress (ANC), which is currently the ruling party, to ensure that the capacity development interventions of the NSG resonate with the needs of government (Memo – Field Notes, 2016; University of Johannesburg, 2015:9).

3.4.1.3 Organisational Strategy

According to the NSG Annual Report 2014/15 (National School of Government, 2015:20), the focus of the School is to develop and deliver four key training programmes on leadership, management, administration and induction. While the process of conducting training needs analysis, curriculum design and course development is

managed internally, training delivery is largely outsourced to independent individual contractors (IICs), higher education institutions (HEIs) and private training providers. The NSG has made concerted efforts at utilising currently employed public servants to provide training in their respective areas of expertise (Memo – Field notes, 2016; National School of Government, 2015:20). The NSG has service level agreements with the PSTF (Public Sector Trainers' Forum), which is a network of over 1000 human resource development officials across all spheres of government contributing to theory and practice for public service human resource management and training and development (National School of Government, 2015:10).

In terms of funding, the NSG adopts a cost-recovery approach to the delivery of services. The revenue generated from these services is managed through a training trading account (TTA) and is approved by the National Treasury. Thus, the transfer of funds is derived from the National Treasury and donor-supported projects. The TTA is used for the delivery and implementation of training programmes, marketing, curriculum development, research, monitoring and evaluation, and payment of part of the salaries of staff responsible for these roles and services. In addition, the NSG is partially funded through the national budget appropriation process, while the additional budget raised through revenue collected from payments made by government departments upon completion of training or other capacity development services (Memo – Field notes, 2016; National School of Government, 2015:22).

As part of the budgeting process, the NSG is tasked with projecting expected revenue targets. These targets are informed by an expected number of participants to attend the anticipated and scheduled training interventions annually. The cost of the training and fees charged by the NSG are also prescribed and approved in concurrence with the National Treasury (National School of Government, 2015:24). Although government departments budget for training and utilise funds from their training budgets, they are not specifically directed to utilise the NSG as a sole or preferred provider. There are, however, exceptions which include the induction and partnership programmes under the National Treasury.

Many of the international programmes are implemented through Official Development Assistance (ODA), bilateral agreements and multilateral agreements. In this regard, the funds are channelled to the NSG through the National Treasury while the procurement is undertaken by the donor. All funds and revenue received are subjected to audited accounts under the NSG (Memo – Field notes, 2016; National School of Government, 2015:22-24).

It must, however, be noted that the current funding model has been described as not adequately appropriate to sustain the NSG since its existence is said to be influenced by a number of aspects which include the current training delivery model and the correspondingly high training costs involved (Memo – Field Notes, 2016; National School of Government, 2015:15). The model requires training to be provided based on a minimum class size which is often not easy or practical to realise.

Related to issues described understaffing, one of the emerging challenges relates to the absence of permanent NSG core business staff. Hence, there are indications that the high reliance on external and outsourced training providers add to the perceived high training fees. This challenge has been indicated to have a negative impact and correspondingly a causal link to the reputation of the NSG, alongside the insufficient training uptake and revenue generation challenges (Memo – Field notes, 2016; National School of Government, 2015:15).

Despite these challenges, the NSG envisages 100% coverage of public service employees by the year 2017, adhering to its aim of creating fully fledged and competent professional public servants at all levels. This is aligned with the South African government's effort of creating an ethos of a uniform public service (National School of Government, 2015:28). In addition, the Minister for Public Service and Administration issued a directive to all national and provincial departments in relation to compulsory capacity development, mandatory training days and minimum entry requirements for the senior management service. In terms of the directive, all senior management staff members are expected to attend relevant training in order to address identified development gaps. These are determined by a competency assessment and/or a performance assessment at specific performance

levels. Every senior manager is allocated a minimum of 18 days to attend a combination of generic and technical or professional training over a three-year performance cycle (National School of Government, 2015:28; Government of the Republic of South Africa, 2003:23).

The idea of creating a uniform public service is to be realised through the NSG's mandatory programmes such as the induction, middle and senior management programmes. The Compulsory Induction Programme (CIP) is, as the name indicates, a compulsory course for all new employees to provide new entrants to the public service with an orientation to their work and to their new role. Regulated by a ministerial directive which links the probation and pay progression of new employees from all three spheres of government, the CIP consists of five modules and is delivered over a period of one year. There are 26 contact days which are delivered in a blended manner by utilising both face-to-face and online platforms. The facilitators for the CIP are full-time employees who are sourced from government departments.

Senior managers, by virtue of their role and position, attend a shorter two-day induction course. Middle and senior management of the public service are, however, eligible to attend the Government Leadership Programme (GLP), which is a much longer programme and delivered over a four-week period (Memo – Field notes, 2016; National School of Government, 2015:23).

The programmes of the NSG are designed according to a learning and development framework (LDF) (Memo, 2014; National School of Government, 2015:20). The LDF is structured in such a way that the NSG programmes are categorised according to the various levels of target groups in the public service. These target groups are administrators, supervisors, junior managers, middle managers and senior managers. The LDF also considers the various levels of competencies, which are structured across four levels, namely introductory, intermediate, advanced and expert. According to the LDF, five core competencies prescribe the main competencies for the public service. These are financial management, people management and empowerment, programme and project

management, strategic capability, and leadership and change management (Memo, 2014; National School of Government, 2015:21).

3.4.1.4 Organisational Systems

Although the NSG has achieved a number of milestones, such as having a number of curriculum frameworks in place and being able to provide a total of 146 courses, there is still a lot of work and as such the NSG faces a number of challenges with regard to its systems (NSG Senior Official 1, 2017; National School of Government, 2015:7). Of the 146 courses, 104 are accredited by the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) and registered on the National Qualifications Framework (NQF) while 42 are non-accredited. As an institution, the NSG has been a fully accredited public service training provider since 2 February 2014 under the SAQA.

All in-house processes pertaining to the training cycle are housed at the NSG. These include conducting the training needs analysis, curriculum design, materials development, quality assurance, and monitoring and evaluation of training interventions which include the assessment of the impact of the application of learning. The training logistics and training records management processes are conducted in liaison with accrediting bodies (National School of Government, 2015:34). In this regard, according to the NSG organogram, the division of Specialised Services focuses on the specialised and transversal support competencies that are core to the NSG's ability to develop both accredited and non-accredited training programmes and implement quality assurance standards essential to the credibility of the NSG as a reputable and authorised training provider (National School of Government, 2015:22). While it is important for the NSG to be perceived as reputable and have its programmes formally registered on the NQF, there are some questions on accreditation which may illustrate a level of uncertainty about where the core focus of the NSG's programmes are. Key to this question is whether the NSG should focus on the development of competencies or on providing training which possesses credits and articulates into formal learning (qualifying) credit-bearing courses which later translate into a qualification.

This issue leads to aspects pertaining to the learning and development framework of the NSG. In describing the learning philosophy, the focus of the NSG is on advancing andragogy or adopting learning and development practices based on “the art and science of helping adults learn” (Knowles et al., 2005:34). However, during a process-mapping exercise undertaken by international experts as part of the EU-funded programme of the NSG, it emerged that despite the NSG having the requisite processes and systems to fulfil its mandate, there are gaps which require attention in order for the NSG to function optimally (NSG Senior Official 1, 2017).

Many of the challenges relate to issues of weak alignment of processes, poor coordination and communication systems that are implemented on an ad hoc basis with many requests being dealt with at all levels and not all through the contact centre. This exacerbates the emergence and sustaining of vertical silos. These issues pertaining to poor coordination, both internally and externally, indicate that the NSG has been referred to as not only inward-looking, i.e. not focused on the external client, but also lacking in responsiveness and flexibility (NSG Senior Official 1, 2017).

Moreover, there are concerns about the post-training support and follow-up on participants (National School of Government, 2015:22; Memo – Field Notes, 2016). Currently, the monitoring and evaluation of the training is addressed by government as well as internally. Within the NSG, all training programmes are evaluated through reaction evaluation questionnaires (REQs), facilitator feedback forms (FFFs), focus group and post-training interviews and observations. Weekly reports are submitted to programme managers to factor in areas of concern for the next round of delivery (National School of Government, 2015:22).

This process can, however, be improved and strengthened, given that most of the learning takes place within 14 days after having attended the programme or course. As post-training support has been indicated as one of the limitations and weaknesses of the system, it could be enhanced by a series of post-training coaching and mentoring coupled with practical applications of the coursework in the workplace (NSG Senior Official 2, 2017). Furthermore, the provision of post-training support should be considered within the

context of the broader human resource development agenda with a particular emphasis on promoting the sustainability of learning and development interventions and geared towards strengthening relationships between the participant or trainee and their colleagues (NSG Senior Official 1, 2017).

3.4.1.5 Organisational Culture and Shared Values

Moving on to describing the organisational culture of the broader South African public service, of which the NSG is part, there are some interesting insights. According to a report on the South African public service conducted by the University of Johannesburg (2105:4), “[t]he organisational culture is experienced as rigidly hierarchical where employees are instructed on what and how to conduct business”. The report further states that the “distrust” and “traumatised culture” could be ascribed to the various rationalisation and restructuring exercises given the history of the institution preceding the launch of the NSG (University of Johannesburg, 2015:5).

In addition to the endemic concerns, the presidential announcements and political changes have exacerbated the fears of job loss and security all of which have far-reaching organisational consequences. The report concludes by indicating that “the fear expressed stifles knowledge flow and ensuring a stable working environment in which trust can be built is critical for developing the organisational culture into one where sharing becomes routine” (University of Johannesburg, 2015:4). It is not surprising that a number of NSG staff members have experienced change fatigue with the organisation experiencing various waves of change and transformation efforts from the PSTI, SAMDI and PALAMA to its current form (Memo – Field Notes, 2016; NSG Senior Official 1, 2017).

Since the appointment of the new Principal in 2015, a new leadership style and a new leadership strategy are currently in place (NSG Senior Official 1, 2017). By focusing on integration, addressing shortfalls on targets set and enhancing the efficiency and effectiveness of business processes, there is a reported stability prevalent across the organisation (NSG Senior Official 1, 2017). In addition, the reported leadership style

includes the transfer of responsibility to the senior managers, accordingly holding people accountable.

3.4.1.6 Organisational Competencies

Continuing from the organisational culture of the NSG, it may be apparent that the organisational effectiveness of the NSG relies heavily on the staffing and, in particular, the unique skills set required for optimal performance. Some of the key challenges identified by the NSG in 2015 relate to inadequate performance management practices, a mismatch of current competencies and required competencies for jobs, and poor management and leadership (Memo – Field Notes, 2016; Personal Communication, 2014; National School of Government, 2015:4). It is expected that as part of the NSG's transformation programmes, an effective performance management development system (PMDS) and workplace skills plan (WSP) spearheaded by the DPSA will assist in realigning the structure with the strategic plan (National School of Government, 2015:15). Similarly, consistent concerns have been raised that the NSG faces a serious risk of not fulfilling its strategic objectives due to limited capacity and resources in certain key organisational functions, such as research and innovation (PALAMA, 2009:10; Republic of South Africa, 2003:32).

However, with the organisational culture of the NSG reportedly improving, the requisite staff have been given a number of learning and development opportunities to meet the criteria to meet the organisational performance mandate in terms of the knowledge and aptitude to handle complex and technical matters (NSG Senior Official 2, 2017). The organisation is now delivering training to around 50,000 public servants a year (National School of Government, 2015). A NSG newsletter indicates that “[t]he NSG's performance in quarter three has seen some encouraging improvement, especially looking at training numbers. The NSG had planned to train 11 826 persons in the quarter under review, but ended with a total of 19 392 (including eLearning courses and Induction for Councillors and Traditional Leaders) actual trained” (NSG, 2017a).

Having discussed the NSG, the next section details the Lal Bahadur Shastri National Academy of Administration (LBSNAA) in India.

3.4.2 Case Study 2: The Lal Bahadur Shastri National Academy of Administration, India

India is a federal republic with 29 states and six union territories. It has a parliamentary democracy which operates under the Constitution of 1950. The Constitution provides for a bicameral federal parliament: the Rajya Sabha or council of states (upper house) and the Lok Sabha or house of the people (lower house) (National Portal of India, 2016). Indian legislation may be introduced in either house, but the Lok Sabha has final say in financial matters. The prime minister is elected by the members of the Lok Sabha and appoints the Council of Ministers. An electoral college consisting of members of the federal parliament and state assemblies elects the President for five years. India became independent from British rule on the 15th of August 1947 and joined the Commonwealth in the same year (National Portal of India, 2016). Its population in 2013 was 1,252,140,000 and ranks 135 in terms of the HDI. The GDP for the period 1990–2013 was 4.7% p.a. The main official language is Hindi, which is the language of choice for at least 30 percent of the population. English is specified as an official language under the Constitution together with 17 other official languages (Government of the Republic of India, 1963:12). On an international level, India is a member of the Indian Ocean Rim Association, Non-Aligned Movement, South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation, United Nations and World Trade Organisation (Commonwealth Network, 2016:1).

The Indian public sector is not immune to the changes brought about by globalisation and the advent of the information communication revolution (Niazi, 2011:43). In addition to remaining relevant and responsive and providing better services, the Indian public sector is required to improve their overall organisational performance, efficiency and effectiveness. In view of restructuring and other public sector reform efforts, the public sector is also competing with an increasingly emergent, resource efficient private sector. These changes necessitate the need to capacitate public sector officials on all levels to mitigate these challenges (Rao, 2004:288).

3.4.2.1 Context and Background

With reference to capacity development in the Indian context, there are conflicting findings which provide a skewed picture of public sector progress. Singh (2008:21) points out a number of challenges which relate to an increasing awareness of the citizenry regarding the low level of professional quality of public servants employed in districts and in rural areas. In general, the findings portray some resistance on all levels across all sectors to all forms of training and capacity development. Added to this, there are also reported challenges experienced by the citizenry in terms of access to information, public participation, innovation and accountability, all of which are required to be able to deliver quality services in an efficient and effective manner (Rao, 2004:289). This is not surprising since capacity development is not considered as necessary to be highly prioritised as a core competence for many public sector organisations. As such, the evaluation and training skills transfer is also not given much importance (Niazi, 2011:44).

Other research, in turn, highlights the importance the Indian government has given to capacity development in view of building the requisite human resource capabilities across the public sector to advance sustainable performance and operational excellence (Kothari, 2010:25). In acknowledgment of the importance of the role of capacity development and training, India has invested heavily by creating a dedicated Ministry of Human Resource Development, which has been in existence for almost 35 years to spearhead this function (Rao, 2004:288).

Another critical element of the Indian capacity development context is the change effort from traditional classroom- and lecture-based methods to training which addresses knowledge, skills and attitudes. Structured and systematic training for all levels of the civil service, particularly those at senior management level, has been institutionalised and is available at least once every ten years. However, the alignment of the training system with the emerging concerns and challenges across government is still to be realised. The National Training Policy (2012) fully recognises that the existing HRM system is aligned with the traditional public administration emphasis rather than geared towards responsive

governance (Government of India, 2011:6). Hence, it is important to address and take cognisance of the emerging political and social concerns while at the same time embarking on a reorientation of the administrative systems to the current scenario. This exercise requires focused training programmes to enable their diffusion throughout the administrative structure (Government of India, 2012).

To this end, several public sector management development institutions have been set up at both national and district level to provide capacity development. Many of these MDIs are reported to be highly profitable and have been instrumental in enhancing both the economic development of India and the quality of public sector employees (Rao & Kishan, 2012:31). Focusing on MDIs in India, the National Academy of Administration was borne out of a Lok Sabha proposal made by the then serving Minister of Home Affairs on 15 April 1958 (Singh, 2008:12). The proposal was a simple but visionary one in which there would be an envisaged training centre dedicated to training all new recruits of the Indian Civil Services. Following the proposal, the India All Services (IAS) Training School, Delhi and the IAS Staff College, namely Shimla, were all unified under the Ministry of Home Affairs under the renewed National Academy of Administration at Mussoorie in 1959. By resorting under the Ministry of Home Affairs, the Academy is set up as an “attached office”. In October 1972, its name was changed to “Lal Bahadur Shastri Academy of Administration” and almost a year later, in July 1973, the word “National” was added. Hence, the MDI is now known as the Lal Bahadur Shastri Academy or LBSNAA and serves as the principal training institution for the Higher Civil Services in India (LBSNAA, 2014).

3.4.2.2 Institutional Setup and Governance Arrangements

As there are a number of role players in the capacity development arena, the Ministry of Personnel, Public Grievances and Pensions is the lead ministry responsible for personnel matters and administration in India. Under this ministry, there is also a training division which is responsible for the implementation of the National Training Policy (2012) and which provides induction training to the Indian Administrative Service, All India Services and Central Services (LBSNAA, 2014:80).

Returning to the LBSNAA, the vision of the institution is well articulated in all their strategic documents and states that it “seeks to promote good governance through the provision of training in order to build a responsive civil service in a caring, ethical and transparent manner” (LBSNAA, 2014:77). To supplement this vision, its mission is to “impart quality training to public servants that focuses on developing professionalism, accountability and ethical conduct” (LBSNAA, 2014:77). The LBSNAA has four key objectives which firstly seek to build capacity through effective delivery of the Induction and in-service training programmes; secondly, to organise quality workshops, conferences and seminars; thirdly to provide and avail state-of-the-art facilities; and fourthly to develop and roll out standardised training programmes (LBSNAA, 2014:79).

LBSNAA derives its funding from the central government budget allocation under the “Demand No-73-Ministry of Personnel, Public Grievances & Pensions” vote. The budgetary provisions include unplanned establishment-related expenditure (revenue), underplanned infrastructure-related expenditure (revenue) and planned expenditure (capital). The budget allocation is made for various core activities of the Academy that include training programmes such as the foundation course, refresher courses and mid-career training programmes. Allocations are made under various plans for the improvement of both infrastructure and refurbishment of facilities (LBSNAA, 2014:100).

There are nine faculties which are structured according to subject disciplines. They are as follows: Constitutional Law; Contemporary India and Global Environment which covers Indian history and culture; Economics; Hindi and Regional Languages; Law; Management (including IT and eGovernance); Political Theory; Public Administration and Information; and Communication Technology (ICT) (LBSNAA, 2014:78-80).

The LBSNAA follows an annual Results-Framework Document (RFD). The Executive Council and the General Council meet periodically to review the research and training activities of LBSNAA. The Research Advisory Committee (RAC) and the Academic Committee (AC) meet once a year – if necessary, more frequently. In addition to these bodies, a national colloquium of State Secretaries of Personnel, Public Grievances and Pensions and their various departments meet with public servants and others who have

completed the programmes. This dialogue helps in understanding the needs of each clientele group and gives vital feedback on the quality of the services rendered by LBSNAA. Finally, to close the feedback loop, the Ministry of Personnel, Public Grievances and Pensions reviews the performance of the Academy periodically through meetings and progress reports (LBSNAA, 2014:80).

The existing organogram illustrates that the Academy is headed by a director who is deputised by two joint directors. The portfolio of one of the joint directors covers a range of faculties and responsibilities which are spread over seven units and sections (LBSNAA, 2014:91). These include officials at the level of associate director and academics who oversee the Faculties of Management and eGovernment, Law, Political Theory and the Faculty of Constitutional Law as well as coordinate administrative (accounts, officers mess or eating quarters, estate, administration and library) and social activities. The functions of the other joint director, who has four reporting centres headed by deputy directors, is responsible for the function of delivering programmes in public administration, rural studies, disaster management and public systems. The delivery of the induction programme as well as the various social clubs such as the native club, fine arts and economic research also fall under the coordination of the aforementioned four centres (Memo – Field notes, 2016). Figure 3.2 provides the organogram of the LBSNAA.

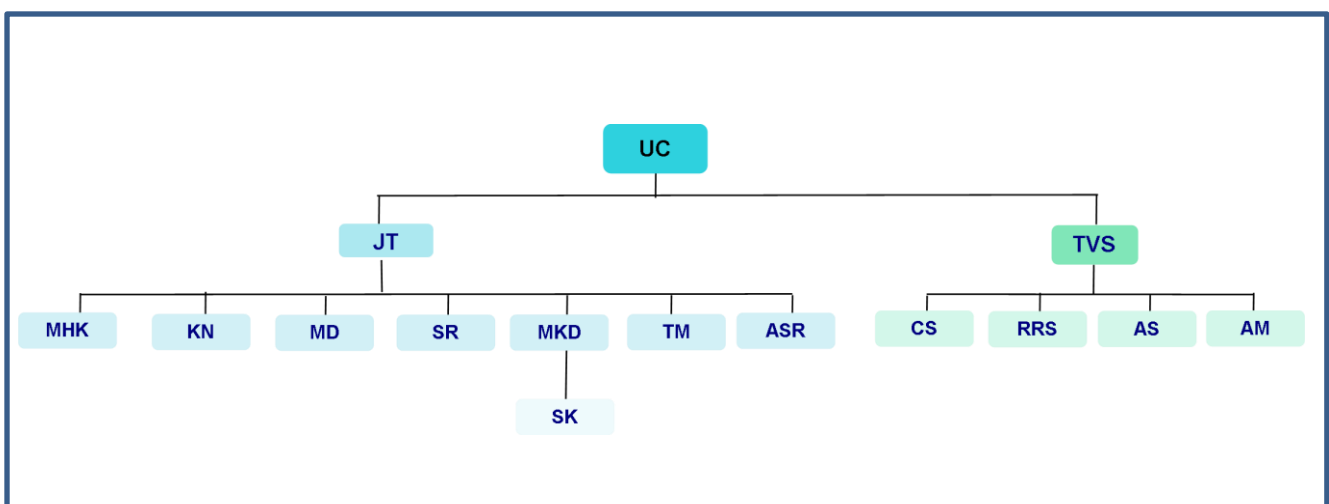


Figure 3.2: Organogram of the LBSNAA (LBSNAA, 2014:101)

The organogram illustrates that the LBSNAA constitutes 15 key centres which are collectively responsible for both the operational support, coordination of training and management of the training function. The centres operate as interrelated units which house either an academic discipline and/or a specific course but also has embedded administrative responsibilities. In addition, there are clubs and societies which are housed across the centres. Leadership is shared and centre heads are jointly accountable. Each flagship course has a coordinator who reports on the number of staff or participants trained and the delivery (LBSNAA, 2014:88-90).

3.4.2.3 Organisational Strategy

The government of India follows the 3P model (3PM) of administration in India (Mishra, 2011:12). This model is widely understood to refer to the evolutionary phases of public administration in India. With the suffix “p” denoting the reference to the “public” and attaching it to the corresponding phases starting with the first phase, namely public administration, followed by public management and, finally, public governance. The government of India’s adoption of the 10th Five-Year Plan signifies that India has adopted the governance model, which, in turn, comprises the improvement and strengthening of public sector institutions, service delivery mechanisms and an enabling legal environment (Mishra, 2011:120; Government of India, 2008).

The LBSNAA’s training programmes are similarly based on this 3P model in terms of how training programmes are designed, developed and delivered. These programmes are based on a thorough Training Needs Assessment (TNA) and stakeholder consultations (Memo – Field notes, 2016). This process ensures that the training programmes, once developed, will meet the requirements of the recipients who consist of trainee civil servants and in-service officials. It is on this basis that standardised training programmes on induction and for mid-career civil servants on selected and relevant thematic areas. Another objective of the LBSNAA is to ensure that all systems and procedures are commonly understood across the institution by developing and implementing standard operating procedures (SOPs).

In order for the LBSNAA to adopt a learning organisation mindset, there is a need to set aside the tried-and-tested solutions and old viewpoints in order to be open to the changing role of the public service (Mishra, 1999:14; Government of India, 2011:2-4; Memo – Field Notes, 2016). The organisational setup of the institution appears to follow the traditional strategy-structure-system principle, which directs that structure follow strategy. While in principle there is nothing wrong with this, it appears that many managers and staff view this as the principal means of driving performance within the organisation without considering that there may be extraneous forces at play which are likely to instil change in an organisation's strategy (Memo – Field Notes, 2016; Government of India, 2011:3). The margin of success is low, given that there is an overemphasis on the internal strategy while its structure is weak because of the uncertainties caused by the extraneous forces in the environment.

One of the issues regarding the overemphasis on the internal strategy is the alignment of the LBSNAA's strategy to the broader human resource management system of the broader Indian public service. In this regard, there is a common recruitment standard for all civil servants to pass an entrance examination. In addition, the minimum requirement to enter the public service is a bachelor's degree while domain-specific knowledge is not a requirement for any of the services/cadres. This is not seen as a disadvantage since civil servants are involved in diverse sectors and competencies required for different jobs are not prescribed. Further, career progression of public servants is based on the Performance Appraisal Reports (PARs) / Annual Performance Appraisal Reports (APARs) that do not reflect competency parameters. With this misalignment of competencies required to perform a specific job (based on competencies) and the content of the courses offered on the various levels which are very much geared towards academic knowledge-based content, it is difficult to assess the overall impact and effectiveness of the current capacity development and training efforts (Government of India, 2011:25).

The LBSNAA has a number of mandatory flagship programmes which are discussed next. As background, it should be noted that all new entrants who have been successfully employed at the All India Services and Central Services fall under an occupational category referred to as Group A (Rao, 2004; Memo – Field Notes, 2016). The journey of

Group A officials begins at the LBSNAA at Mussoorie. This initial experience of government is part of the philosophy of training and provides a solid foundation and many suitable opportunities to bond, develop camaraderie and share experiences with other new recruits from all sectors as they attend the Foundation Programme. This programme is 15 weeks in duration and aims at building an esprit de corps geared at strengthening coordination efforts across the public service. In addition, the programme provides opportunities to develop an individual holistically through theoretical, moral, physical and aesthetic means (LBSNAA, 2014:93, Memo – Field Notes, 2016).

The Induction Training Programme, in contrast, aims to impart an All India perspective to all officers promoted to the IAS and is delivered over a period of six weeks. Its key objective is to update the existing levels of knowledge and functional skills as well as to provide trainees with various platforms to exchange ideas, views and experiences across various sectors. This is done in order to advance national development. Considerable focus is given to new managerial techniques and skills as well as to frontier areas of technology and their management (LBSNAA, 2014:100, Memo – Field Notes, 2016).

Following the Foundation Programme, the IAS Professional Course consists of two phases. Phase one is devoted to 26 weeks of training and provides participants with a wide range of competencies in different functional areas across subject disciplines. Similarly, the subject disciplines adopt thematic areas focusing on policymaking, national security, legislation, the role and functions of government, e-government as well as highlighting areas of social and financial acumen. A mandatory study tour scheduled during the Indian winter is undertaken by participants to various Indian states. The final part of the IAS Professional Course takes the form of a week-long attachment with the Bureau of Parliamentary Studies and Training (BPST) in New Delhi (LBSNAA, 2014:93, Memo – Field Notes, 2016). The BPST is an affiliate training institution which focuses on providing training on the Indian Parliamentary system to all officials. Part of this attachment includes courtesy and interactive visits to various high-level Indian officials.

Phase two comprises six weeks and is devoted to the implementation of learning and training transfer. The emphasis of this phase is consequently on more interactive and applied learning where participants have the opportunity to reflect on what they have learnt in phase one, have the opportunity to interact with experts from both government and the private sector, and have the opportunity to apply what they have learnt. The LBSNAA is also responsible for District Training which is a one-year or 52-week programme. During this period, participants experience the public service in work-study engagements and are given opportunities to internalise government's priorities, developmental agenda and philosophy (LBSNAA, 2014:94, Memo – Field Notes, 2016).

Finally, the Mid-Career Training Programme is an in-service training programme provided to IAS officers. The aim of this programme is to prepare participants for progression to higher levels of responsibility. It consists of three phases, Phase III, Phase IV and Phase V.

Besides the compulsory Induction and Foundation Programme for entrants to All India Services and all Group A services of the Union, the professional training to regular recruits of the Indian Administrative Service (IAS) and members of the Royal Bhutan Service is conducted after the Foundation Course. The Academy also conducts in-service training and the Mid-Career Training Programme (MCTP) for members of the IAS and Induction Training Programme for officers promoted to the IAS from State Civil Services, as well as workshops and seminars on policy issues. The Academy is committed to building an effective, efficient, responsive and accountable civil service characterised by integrity in thought and action (LBSNAA, 2014:94, Memo – Field Notes, 2016).

In terms of strategic partnerships, the LBSNAA has a number of collaborative agreements with many local and international institutions. These institutions include the Center for Good Governance, the National Institute of Public Finance and Policy, the Indira Gandhi National Open University, the ASCI, the Indian Institution of Public Administration, the Election Commission of India, and the École nationale d'administration in France.

Networking with reputable, local and international institutions such as the German Centre for Creative Leadership, Civil Service College (Singapore), the UNDP, UNICEF and the Brookings Institute (USA) has received prominence and is advanced as another important objective of the institution (LBSNAA, 2014:92; Memo – Field Notes, 2016). The objectives of these strategic partnerships are to collaboratively design and deliver contemporary best practices and knowledge to officials and trainees. Some of the agreements advance the principle of resource sharing, embarking on collaborative research, staff exchange and capacity development, and enhancing the quality of training inputs (LBSNAA, 2014:95, Memo – Field Notes, 2016).

In addition to training, the LBSNAA has five specialised and dedicated research units that advance the Indian government's research agenda in both developing and reviewing policies. The policies which are ready for adoption and implementation are then used as a basis for structuring training programmes. The five research units are the Training Research and Publications Centre, the Center for Rural Studies, the Centre for Disaster Management, the National Gender Centre, and the National Centre for Sustainable Community Systems (LBSNAA, 2014:98, Memo – Field Notes, 2016).

The LBSNAA has a fully functional library which is open 24 hours a day and seven days a week. Named after Mahatma Gandhi, the Gandhi Smriti Library is both catalogued and computerised which ensures that the entire library is accessible online. The books and the multimedia items such as compact discs (CDs) and digital video discs (DVDs) are tagged electronically. This system provides for and is run on an honour system where lenders are responsible for self-issuing and self-returning through a kiosk without using the library circulation counter (LBSNAA, 2014:113, Memo – Field Notes, 2016).

To ensure that both the academic curricula and training methodologies are relevant, they are constantly reviewed and updated through an extensive training needs analysis, expert guidance and feedback from officers under training (LBSNAA, 2014:100; Memo – Field Notes, 2016; LBSNAA, 1985:58-67; Government of India, 2011:2-3).

With regard to programme design, the LBSNAA designs its programmes following five distinct yet interdependent steps. The first step is for the Academy to engage with the trainees. During this step, preliminary training needs are discussed in tandem with the feedback reviews of previous courses. This is followed by the second step, which is devoted to the programme design, which establishes the learning needs per participant and per level through a detailed assessment and analysis exercise. During this process, both individual and competency needs are considered in order to give rise to a holistic yet detailed programme design.

The third step evolves the learning methods and corresponds to the harmonisation of the curriculum, programme design and methodological aspects in view of the delivery of the programme. It is also at this stage that the most suitably qualified and experienced facilitators are selected and assigned to the various modules of delivery. The fourth step focuses on ensuring learning and emphasises interactive learning strategies. During these interactive sessions, detailed feedback is provided and considered to enhance the content and delivery. The fifth and final step is devoted to enable practical application. During this step, the trainees are strongly encouraged to share experiences and options related to decision-making and problem-solving (LBSNAA, 1985:58-67). These steps are depicted in Figure 3.3.

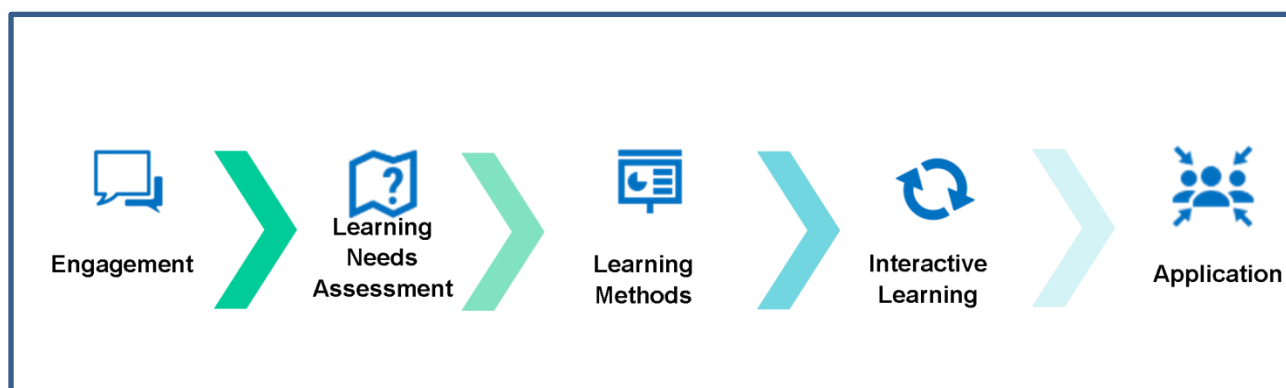


Figure 3.3: LBSNAA process of designing programmes (LBSNAA, 1985)

As the conventional classroom lecture method is often not the most effective route to create an impact on attitudes and values, several new methodologies have been innovated and introduced with significant success. Most courses operate on a modular

structure whereby relevant themes are dealt with in a consolidated manner, thus ensuring a holistic participatory mode of imparting the requisite knowledge, skills and attitude (LBSNAA, 2014:100; Memo – Field Notes, 2016; LBSNAA, 1985:58-67). A module may comprise all or some of the following methodologies listed in the next paragraph.

The learning philosophy of the LBSNAA is comparable to other leading international MDIs such as the National School of Government in the UK in Sunningdale, the École nationale d'administration in Paris, and West Point in the United States in that it provides for an “all Souls college with a mechanics workshop” (LBSNAA, 2014:100). In addition to this, the LBSNAA seeks to assist the Indian government in creating a civil service which “commands respect by performance rather than through position” (LBSNAA, 2014:100; Memo – Field Notes, 2016).

With regard to training delivery, the Academy combines both theory and practice (LBSNAA, 2014:100; Saxena, 2015). It offers its participants an opportunity to deliberate on challenges and solutions to enhance good governance, share and explore new approaches geared towards improving public policy formulation and public service delivery, shaping positive attitudes, upgrading professional competencies and enabling participants to be the leaders of tomorrow. While the training curriculum is extensive and needs-based, the learning approaches are equally diverse and interactive (LBSNAA, 2014: 101; Saxena, 2015; Singh, 2016). The conventional classroom teaching methodology is not always the most effective mode to make an impact on attitudes and values of trainees. Hence, several new methodologies are also used. Most courses operate on a modular structure, whereby relevant themes are chosen and dealt with in a consolidated manner to ensure that all aspects relating to them are addressed (LBSNAA, 2014:100; Saxena, 2015; LBSNAA, 1985:58-67).

In this regard, the training methodologies commonly employed during the delivery of training consist of lessons by both in-house and guest faculty which are supplemented by panel discussions to promote an appreciation of divergent opinions and views (Singh, 2016). Case studies, films and group discussions are commonplace while there are also simulation exercises for the trainees to practice their newly acquired competencies. Role

plays, a moot court and mock trial are frequently adopted during the legal training, as are the order- and judgment-writing practices. The use of demonstrations, problem-solving exercises during group work form the basis of many of the interactive sessions. Trainees are also expected to write term papers or reports after having embarked on scheduled field visits (LBSNAA, 2014:100; Singh, 2016; LBSNAA, 1985:58-67).

3.4.2.4 Organisational Systems

To ensure that the academic curriculum is relevant, it is periodically reviewed and updated. This is done through the mechanism of consultations with the state governments, the feedback of the participants and the recommendations of the committees set up by government for this purpose. The representatives of the central government departments are also consulted from time to time (Government of India, 2011:3).

There are indications that the Indian government intends to strengthen the manner in which the training programmes are deemed relevant by hosting learning and development conferences to obtain buy-in from key stakeholders across the various levels of government. Through these interactions, it has materialised that further work and capacity development to support organisational level performance and the monitoring of performance are required (Singh, 2015:643). Aspects such as the introduction of soft skills focusing on leadership development is consequently being encouraged. Furthermore, the legal framework that the Ministry of Personnel, Public Grievances and Pensions intends to implement together with the Performance Standard and Accountability Bill under consideration in Parliament is likely to strengthen the government's approach of introducing competency-based human resource management (Government of India, 2008). Information on the extent and depth of skills can be collected and defined by utilising a common reference framework to profile post-specific positions and by mapping out the organisational competencies and outputs required. In addition, unique management and leadership competencies for improved service delivery are identified with the aim of facilitating the development of employees and for enhancing their performance on the job (Government of India, 2011:37).

As with many initiatives, there are also a number of challenges which have been identified and which may arise during implementation. Anticipated issues have to do with the challenges stemming from the change of government, issues with diversity, hierarchies and networks, maintaining a balance between centralisation, delegation and devolution, or even maintaining a balance between socio-economic development and sustainability. There are equally a number of anticipated challenges in achieving consensus on the manner in which capacity development and administrative reform can be advanced within government (Government of India, 2011:37).

3.4.2.5 Organisational Culture and Shared Values

Many scholars hold the view that the civil service in India is highly bureaucratic and despite the many reform efforts has not succeeded in transforming this culture (Singh, 2015:642; Saxena, 2003:iv). The chairman of the Second Administrative Reforms Commission reinforces this by stating that the Government of India

... has continued to be faithful to the Hegelian dictum. It believes that its authority and legitimacy is derived not from the mandate of the people but from an immutable corpus of rules that it has prescribed for itself, without any correspondence to the needs and aspirations of the people it serves and the democratic ethos. That is why the functioning of the civil service is characterised by a great deal of negativity, lack of responsiveness to what the people want and the dictates of democracy. It is sad but true that the civil service in India evokes the metaphors of what Michel Crozier calls 'bureaucratic behaviour'; the normal association that people have with the "vulgar and frequent use of the word 'bureaucracy'" which as Crozier explains, "evokes the slowness, the ponderousness, the routine, the complication of procedures, and the maladapted responses of 'bureaucratic' organisations to the needs which they should satisfy, and the frustrations which their members, clients, or subjects consequently endure (Government of India, 2008:v).

With this said, it is vital that the LBSNAA embrace these challenges and opportunities as it is a key role player in the process of improved administration, service delivery and

governance challenges. As most public sector organisations do, the LBSNAA adopts four core values which seek to serve the underprivileged with integrity, collaboration and respect and are similarly well articulated in the following description:

Be humane in your approach while dealing with people; be the voice of the underprivileged and be proactive in addressing injustice against them. You can achieve success in this endeavor if you act with integrity, respect, professionalism and collaboration (LBSNAA, 2014:77).

Although the principles of integrity, respect, professionalism and collaboration are well defined, operationalising them requires practical application, experiential learning and modelling through the use of adult-based methodologies. Many of the courses are still very much classroom- and lecture-based while the principal mode of assessment is predominantly exam-based (Singh, 2016).

This is contrary to the principles embedded in experiential and competency-based training, which focuses on providing and delivering courses to assist civil servants to improve their performance as well as to confront the unpredictable waves of change in a more competent, efficient and effective manner (Singh, 2008). Some of the programme offerings could focus on creating a shared mindset and developing ideas around creating public value, nurturing talent, providing innovative, efficient and effective services, bringing about new learning through e-Government, accountability and collaboration, and raising the quality of public leadership (Mishra, 1999:14; Kothari, 2010:25).

3.4.2.6 Organisational Competencies

In terms of the organisational competencies, the staff and faculty of LBSNAA consist of carefully selected and experienced public servants (Kumar, 2016). In addition, a high degree of merit is placed on their distinctive professional accomplishments. Similarly, there is a pool of leading academics and eminent visitors who are called on from time to time to provide lectures or sessions. LBSNAA prides itself in its ability to identify and engage specialists from all sectors in addition to international institutions to supplement the

capacity and delivery of the programmes provided by the of the in-house faculty and staff (LBSNAA, 2014:91).

As to the development of internal capacity, the LBSNAA organises benchmarking visits to other local and international institutions to provide them with the exposure required to stimulate new ideas for new programmes and advance research opportunities (LBSNAA, 2014:92; Singh, 2016). To this end, the Training, Research and Publication Unit is the custodian of the quarterly research journal *The Administrator* which has been in publication for almost 60 years since its launch in 1961. The journal has provided a forum for the contributors, who are practitioners and academics alike to share their knowledge based on their field experiences. *The Administrator* usually covers topical and current issues regarding a variety of themes such as agriculture, health, climate change, education, land legislation and their respective policy implications. The more recent publications cover the challenges surrounding urban planning, public-private partnerships, sanitation and universal health coverage. There are also general and standing sections which address corruption, service delivery and the economic crisis (LBSNAA, 2014:99, Memo – Field Notes, 2016; Singh, 2016).

While these efforts and achievements are positive, Mishra (2011) opines that there is an urgent need for Indian MDIs and training institutes to refocus and reorient themselves by emphasising improved service delivery as an outcome of the training interventions rather than just compliance with policy. As a result, there is a need for the Indian government to adopt training in a systematic manner and to use it as a strategic tool to add value to society by employing a number of strategies. Some of these strategies include networking more, adopting action research as part of the methodology to enhance and operationalise training outcomes and, finally, enabling participants not only to learn but also to think about how to formulate and implement public policies that are responsive and citizen-centred (Mishra, 2011:21). The next and third case study details the Civil Service Learning in the UK.

3.4.3 Case Study 3: Civil Service Learning, the United Kingdom

The UK is classified as a constitutional monarchy under Queen Elizabeth II as the Head of State. The prime minister and cabinet lead the executive. The UK is also a parliamentary democracy with a bicameral parliament comprising an upper chamber, the House of Lords, and a lower chamber, the House of Commons. Parliamentary elections are held at least every five years, with universal adult suffrage. Although the UK does not have a written constitution, it is made up of common law, statute law and conventions and these may be changed by a simple act of parliament without any special procedure or majority (Blackburn, et al., 2002:5). According to official census figures, the population of the UK in 2013 was 63,136,000 and at 30 June 2015 was estimated to be 65,110,000 (Office for National Statistics, 2015) and its HDI in terms of world ranking lies at number 14. The official and most widely spoken language is English (Commonwealth Network, 2016:2). The increase in the GDP of the UK between 1990 and 2013 was 1.5% per annum. The UK is a member of a number of international organisations including the United Nations and the World Trade Organization (Commonwealth Network, 2016:2).

3.4.3.1 Context and Background

In terms of education and training, the UK has an above average participation in non-formal continuing education and skill-based training compared to other OECD countries. However, the availability of higher vocational and technical education in the UK trails behind other European systems (European Commission, 2015). According to the prime minister's most senior policy adviser, the Secretary to the Cabinet and Head of the Civil Service, training is seen as an investment and, as such, staff development is not only seen as developing the individual but also the organisation (Government of the United Kingdom, 2014:3). This principle is embedded in the UK Civil Service reform strategy, which devotes a minimum of five days of training per civil servant per annum (Brecknell, 2013). Although training for civil servants has always been important, there have been significant developments in the capacity development arena since the closure of the National School for Government (NSG) in 2010, which provided in-house training (Memo, 2014; Brecknell, 2013).

It is not possible to introduce the Civil Service Learning in London without referring to its predecessor, the UK National School of Government (NSG). Previously known as the Civil Service College and the Centre for Management and Policy Studies (CMPS), the NSG formed part of the Cabinet Office. It was based at Sunningdale Park, but it operated from other centres in Edinburgh and London (Walker, 2011). While the NSG was responsible for delivering training, organisational development and consultancy courses for staff of the UK civil service, it also managed the Sunningdale Institute, which was a virtual academy of thought leaders in the areas of management, leadership, organisation and governance. When the NSG closed on 31 March 2012, its main functions were absorbed by a new organisation, namely the Civil Service Learning (CSL) (Memo, 2014; Brecknell, 2013; UK Government, 2014:2).

3.4.3.2 Institutional Setup and Governance Arrangements

The CSL currently falls under the Cabinet office, which, in turn, resorts under the Home Office. The Cabinet Office is a directorate responsible for supporting the prime minister and the UK Cabinet. Composed of various units that support Cabinet committees and coordinate the delivery of government objectives via other departments, the Cabinet Office employs approximately 2 000 staff (UK Government, 2016). The rationale behind the CSL being housed under the Cabinet Office is to establish it as both a government institution but also to be less attached to government to allow it the flexibility and autonomy of functioning. It is still, however, part of government and is also the commissioner, the custodian and the implementer of training programmes it offers.

The chief executive of the Civil Service as principal accounting officer upholds the UK government's governance statement which represents assurances to Parliament that the Cabinet Office's systems of internal controls are fully operational in providing the necessary checks and balances. As such, all the departments and agencies of the Cabinet Office develop and uphold their own governance statements, which are published in their respective annual reports and accounts. All the interrelated relationships amongst accounting officers and the chief executive of the Civil Service are set out in their

respective framework arrangements, financial memoranda and designatory letters (UK Government, 2016).

The role of the CSL is to support the development of civil service capability through providing quality learning that gives good value for money and enables the delivery of excellent public service. It has four main units, namely the Policy Profession Support Unit, Civil Service Learning Operations, Civil Service Learning Services and the Operational Delivery Support (UK Government, 2016). These are discussed briefly below.

The Policy Profession Support Unit works closely with the Head of Policy Profession and the wider public administration profession to improve the capacity and professionalism of policymakers across government. This includes the development and implementation of initiatives that result in better policymaking across government; a strengthened policy community which has strong networks at all levels across government, more consistent approaches to both policymaking and professional development across government, and a high-quality professional learning and development offer for policymakers (UK Government, 2016).

The Civil Service Learning Operations is responsible for setting and driving the learning and development strategy, evolving the curriculum to meet strategic changes, engaging with stakeholders, managing the use and development of technology, commissioning from suppliers and managing contracts, evaluating the effectiveness of learning and development, and, finally, measuring and reporting the performance of the CSL (UK Government, 2016).

The team at the Civil Service Learning Services Unit supports the development of civil service leadership and management capability by providing quality learning that gives good value for money and enables the delivery of excellent public service. Other support services include course evaluation, course and venue bookings, and the procurement, supply chain management and invoicing of services rendered (UK Government, 2016).

The Operational Delivery Support Unit supports the director in achieving the vision, objectives and targets of the CSL. This unit is responsible for building and fostering the relationships with the heads of various government institutions, delivery partners and stakeholders. The unit is also responsible for developing and overseeing the implementation of the strategy for the civil service professions (UK Government, 2016).

The 43-person staff complement of the CSL is headed by a director who is supported by four managers. Each of the managers is responsible for policy profession support, operations, services and operational delivery support respectively. The director of the CSL, who is assisted by four unit heads, reports directly to the director general of human resources (DG HR). Following a chain of command, the DG HR reports to the Permanent Secretary of the Home Office. The permanent secretary then reports to the chief executive of the civil service, the permanent secretary for the Cabinet Office and the accounting officer for the Cabinet Office.

The DG HR is a member of the Home Office Executive Management Board and is tasked with the role to lead and represent human resource management and development as head of the human resources profession for the Higher Office and its Agencies. The portfolio of the DG HR also includes organisational reform, staff engagement and development (UK Government, 2016). Figure 3.4 depicts the organogram of the organisation's managing staff.

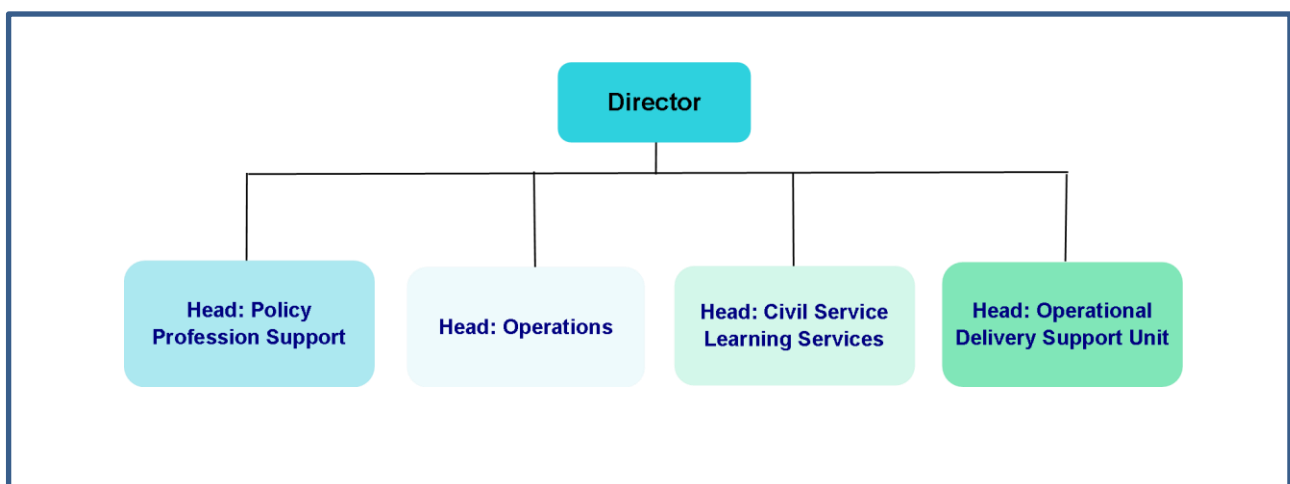


Figure 3.4: Organogram of the CSL

3.4.3.3 Organisational Strategy

In terms of the operational and delivery mode of the CSL, the services offered by the CSL are accessible largely through the CSL website which is enabled through the CSL Gateway (Agarwal, 2016:12). This is a landing page or website which is used to register online government services and is a component of the joined-up government initiative. This single point of entry to the website provides people with the means to communicate and conduct transactions with government online (UK Government, 2016:10).

Through the joined-up government initiative, the UK government, through a designated service provider, puts out a tender every five years on behalf of the CSL (UK Government, 2016:9). The CSL Gateway has embedded guidelines on how capacity development and learning and development interventions are procured across the European Union (EU) through a Learning and Development Managed Service Provider (MSP) Contract (Memo, 2014; UK Government, 2016:9). Civil Service Learning (CSL), in turn, is the custodian of the core curricula for civil servants and does not per se deliver programmes but is responsible for the quality control, coordination and training support. The purpose of the five-year tender is to solicit suppliers, service providers and consortia to provide learning and development for over 400,000 civil servants across the country. The term consortium in the CSL context is used to describe a group of organisations that collaborate and are collectively appointed as subcontractors to the main contractors' respective supply chains (UK Government 2014:6). A contractual relationship therefore exists between the main contractor and their subcontractors and, as such, makes the contract management easier for the CSL as it does not have any direct contractual relationship with any of the subcontractors (UK Government, 2016:9).

This mode of insourcing and co-delivery seeks to ensure that all civil servants across the UK government have access to learning and development that continues to build the Civil Service's capability to deliver great public services. The tender is split into a number of contracts to give more flexibility, provide better value for money and guarantee a consistent high-quality service (UK Government, 2016:6).

Hence, the strategy of the UK government, in particular in view of the training and development of civil servants, focuses on working very closely with the CSL to provide flexible access to a range of e-learning and outsourced training solutions to improve the overall quality of training (UK Government, 2016:9). Through the provision of e-learning, the cost of on-site and face-to-face training has reportedly been cut by up to 70% while the cost of e-learning has dropped from an industry average of 38 pence per hour to just 11 pence per hour (UK Government, 2016:10).

The various curricula for the design and delivery of the programmes and courses are based on a competency framework (UK Government, 2012:3) which covers the core skills that civil servants need to provide efficient, effective and quality services to the public (Government of the United Kingdom, 2014:3). The Civil Service Learning therefore offers a number of learning and development activities which include (very limited) face-to-face classroom courses, e-learning, and professional training and qualifications which are available on the CSL website. Civil servants must register on this website to use it. The aforementioned activities complement the learning programmes specific to departments and professions.

In addition, civil servants have access to a coaching and mentoring database and can download free learning materials such as guides, checklists and articles. The learning materials consist largely of tools to enhance personal effectiveness on the job, 360-degree feedback tools, self-assessment questionnaires and assessments, and other digital guides to assess and enhance existing capability. If the learning required by a civil servant is not available, the CSL provides assistance in sourcing it, using the approved online application and triage process (UK Government, 2016:9).

On funding, since the CSL is part of the Civil Service and employees are remunerated under the provisions of the civil service remuneration framework and, additionally, as a government institution, it guarantees the value for money of all the learning provided – the average cost of a day's training is around £150 and using government's combined buying power has reduced costs by about 75% (UK Government, 2016:9). Financing any training

required has to be channelled through a generic approval system before applications are submitted online to a team who decides on the most appropriate training required. The procurement is channelled to the designated CSL suppliers (UK Government, 2016:9).

3.4.3.4 Organisational Systems

Given the operational model and mode of training delivery explained in the previous section, the process of designing and delivering the courses and other services is covered in this section. The CSL applies the principles following a customised design framework to provide guidance when making decisions on whether the training should be provided online or through face-to-face interventions. There are four key steps which are followed in this regard.

The first step involves the identification of the training need and the completion of a competency self-assessment which is analysed and then broken down into specific topics (UK Government, 2016). As an example, the topic is management and leadership, under which setting performance targets and giving performance feedback are two areas of concern. The step which follows, step two, determines whether the areas of concern require knowledge-based training or skill-based training. During this step, the setting of performance targets will be addressed through knowledge-based training while the giving of performance feedback is more skill-based.

The third step is contingent on whether training is knowledge-based or skill-based. In this case, since the emphasis is on knowledge-based training, the complexity and level of knowledge required on either basic, intermediate or advanced level is determined. This step is important, as the outcome will target the nature of interventions on the specific level required.

The final and fourth step focuses on the provision of training. For the basic and intermediate levels, training is delivered in an online manner and where face-to-face learning is likely to be ineffective (Government of the United Kingdom, 2014:4). As such, the method of choice would be the provision of electronic documents, online tools, videos,

podcasts and/or other e-learning tools. Similarly, for the advanced levels, face-to-face training is deemed more appropriate but is supplemented with additional resources and materials, such as webinars (Agarwal, 2016:12). For skill-based learning, step three, the extent to which the training should be delivered in a blended manner, is assessed. To this end, the knowledge transfer required has to be determined in order to provide the appropriate techniques. The delivery mode would be a combination of electronic documents, videos, podcasts, other e-learning methods, and external resources.

Step four finally establishes what type of support and opportunities to practice the skill in order to develop ample expertise. Here, coaching and mentoring is likely to be effective if participants are given the opportunity to practice and enhance their skills and at the same time receive constructive feedback (UK Government, 2016:15). Figure 3.5 provides an overview of the programme design and delivery process.

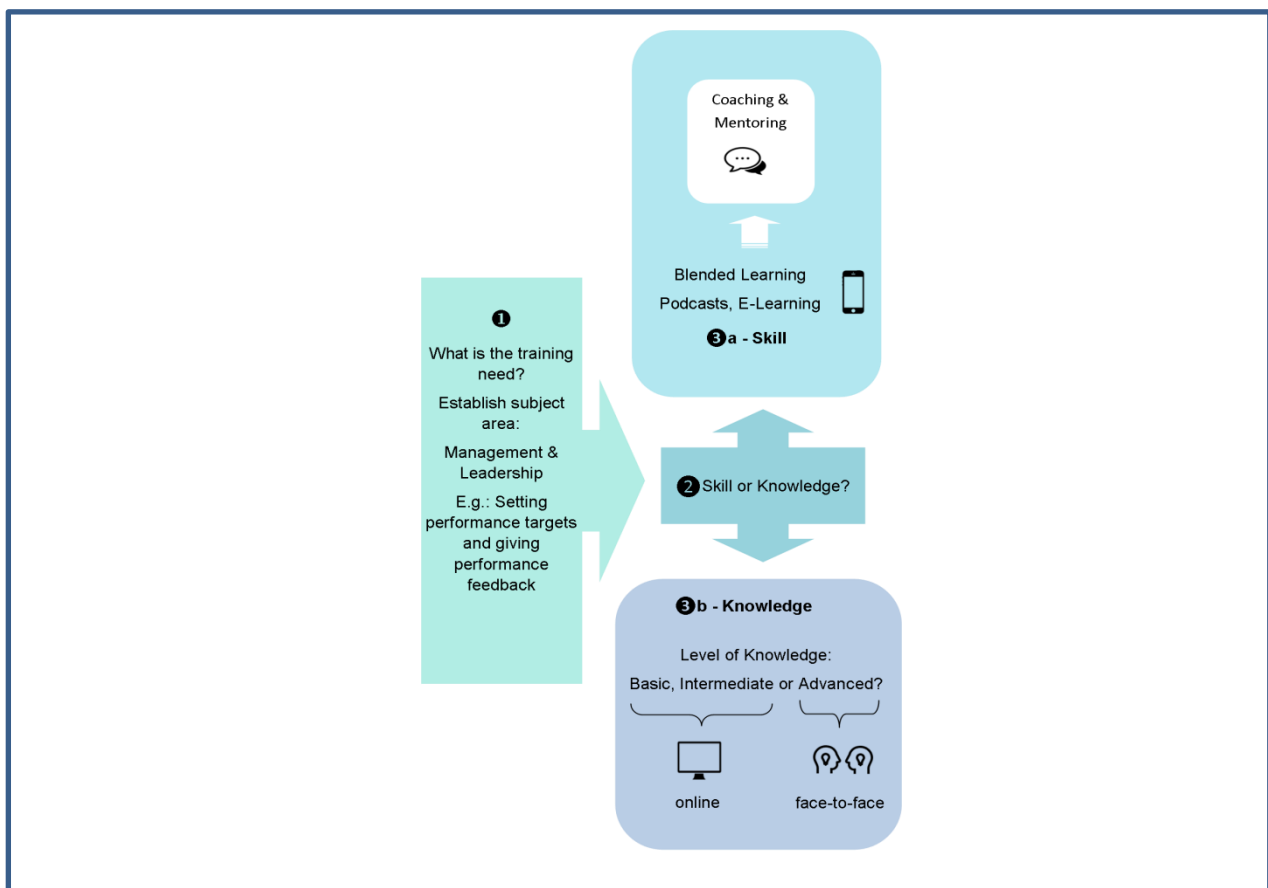


Figure 3.5: The CSL Design Framework

Based on the design framework set out in the previous section, the set of design principles and framework for the CSL interventions provide the blueprint for how decisions are taken regarding the most suitable mode of learning. The learning philosophy underpinning the framework is correspondingly designed to meet a number of criteria (European Commission, 2015:7). Firstly, each intervention should have a desired and tangible impact on the capabilities that drive public sector outcomes. All services, therefore, are to be designed based on the explicit understanding of what government intends to achieve alongside the required knowledge, skills and abilities to achieve those outcomes.

Secondly, the interventions are to be designed with learning transfer in mind. This means that all the training should be designed to maximise the learning at the workplace by practising the newly learnt competencies, retaining those competencies and making use of the coaching and mentoring and post-training support mechanisms which are in place.

Thirdly, the delivery of services in terms of efficiency and effectiveness is an aspect which requires consideration. It is expected that the CSL will anticipate the most cost-effective and efficient method when considering whether training is to be delivered in a blended, online or other non-traditional training form. Furthermore, the CSL is expected to focus on the avoidance of dead time, the avoidance of duplicating retraining participants on what they already know or are not required to know, and the optimal use of timing/duration of the training.

Fourthly and finally, it is expected that each intervention be designed for relevance. It is therefore important that the services and products are promoted as highly marketable, have high value and are accessible to the participants and trainees. The client is therefore placed at the heart of the design of the interventions in considering the duration, venue and flexibility of learning (Government of the United Kingdom, 2014:4).

On the quality assurance of the courses, every course is rated for quality and relevance by the participants and in considering openness and transparency, the results are published on the website as star ratings. All expenditure and procurement follow the standard governance and mandatory approvals set up for government. This is also enabled through the centralisation of procuring consultants in utilising a unified framework

which is available to all public sector organisations. The eGovernment systems in place also enhance the information management value chain by handling the demand and compliance aspects (Agarwal, 2016:12; Government of the United Kingdom, 2014:3). While this is an important element of ensuring that there are training standards that should be adhered to, information presented on the monitoring of the courses at an impact level illustrates some interesting findings.

Regarding the monitoring and evaluation of the training interventions, annual surveys commissioned by the Cabinet Office seek to assess, amongst others, the level of employee engagement and training and development opportunities across the UK Civil Service. Survey data taken from the responses of the Civil Service People Survey over the past five years since 2012 illustrates that the quality of training has been marginal (UK Government, 2016:8). The survey data indicates that accessibility to training and development opportunities has dropped by two per cent, while there has been a marginal drop of one per cent when it comes to officials who feel that the training has not helped to improve their performance. Other aspects of training and development touch on career growth where there has been an improvement of two per cent annually while there was no change in the career and development of individuals who attended training (UK Government, 2016:5).

In contrast to these findings, another survey that was conducted in 2013 by the Civil Service World to assess and explore the reasons for the challenges brought about by the transitioning of the NSG to the CSL found that adapting to the new systems and technology was behind some of the findings (Brecknell, 2013: Online). The same survey also indicated that while 13 per cent of respondents believed that the quality of the courses had improved, 27 per cent believed that training had in fact deteriorated. The survey results further point out that one in ten experiences challenges in looking for, sourcing and booking a course and experiences general administration to be problematic compared to the previous systems under the NSG (Brecknell, 2013). With this said, the next section explores the organisational culture and provides additional insights.

3.4.3.5 Organisational Culture and Shared Values

The organisational culture of the UK Civil Service has been referred to as highly bureaucratic and resistant to change despite attempts to introduce various waves of reform. This observation, although made three decades ago, may still be relevant today. According to Porter (1985),

British firms have a management culture that works against innovation and change. A penchant for tradition, a narrow definition of responsibility and a high level of concern for form and order are characteristic [...] That something is 'not done' is a frequently heard phrase (Porter, 1985:482).

This statement and observation on the UK's traditional machine bureaucracy is confirmed by a recent report on the induction and recruitment of talent commissioned by the Cabinet Office in 2014 (Baxendale, 2014:7). According to the report, although the Civil Service was described to have a strong culture where civil servants indicated their sense of pride and purpose as positive elements, there were also a number of concerns about the culture. The key criticisms of the current culture include: resistance to change and a closed mentality; lack of value on service delivery; an emphasis on the processes as opposed to the outcomes; and, finally, the bureaucracy of the Civil Service itself. The report further states:

The Civil Service's resistance to change came up numerous times – sometimes the cultures are 'so powerful that people don't realise they are there, as it's inconceivable to them that there is another way'. One of the consequences is an unwillingness to learn new ways of doing things, or to harness the experience that external hires bring to the organisation by assuming (that it is a) Rolls Royce and has a monopolistic behaviour and attitude, so that external experience and insight is not jumped on to develop a competitive edge (Baxendale, 2014: 7-9).

Learning and development programmes would not appear to be geared for those joining the Civil Service from outside. The people survey shows a significant difference between internal and external hires' views of learning and development: just over half (52%) think

that the civil service learning and development offer is effective, compared to almost three quarters (72%) of internal hires (Baxendale, 2014:12).

In addition to these findings, the study highlighted that there is a lack of proper induction training. This has implications for the new entrants who may not have the requisite orientation and coaching support as they enter a new culture of the Civil Service. The lack of proper induction training furthermore has an impact beyond the ability of newly appointed civil servants to do their jobs. The rationale behind working systems and the importance of efficient and effective service delivery should ideally provide this context during orientation and induction. It is therefore a missed opportunity. Additionally, it is a misconception that although the Civil Service has a strong set of agreed core values, everyone, particularly the new employees, will embrace and operationalise them in a consistent manner. It also means the Civil Service as a corporate entity will miss the opportunity of positively influencing a new civil servant's frame of reference and limiting service delivery, as there are no other organised opportunities for building networks within and across departments (Baxendale, 2014:22).

3.4.3.6 Organisational Competencies

The lessons from the previous repositioning efforts of the UK government of the Civil Service Learning do not only speak about a new and desired vision for change, but also the motivations behind implementing that change. To this end, the various manifestations and the various forms that the current CSL has adopted indicate that the changes which are currently being implemented dovetail with the government's plans to transform the civil service by increasing its capacity to delivery services in a more efficient and effective manner (UK Government, 2016). However, with the passing of time, various reform agendas change to adapt to pressing needs and realities. The former NSG was close to the heart of activity via the Cabinet Office and was therefore at the forefront of these changes. The CSL's aims appear to be the same. However, in terms of analysis, their mode of operations and delivery indicates major differences (Agarwal, 2016:12; UK Government, 2016:30).

While it is clear from the reform papers and strategy that it is the principal intention of the UK Government to continue building on the competencies required to develop a modern British civil service representative, there are still many areas which require improvement, particularly in view of training and development (Government of the United Kingdom, 2014:6). Firstly, the CSL is now an administrative department which contracts with third-party private sector providers to deliver training courses and learning and development interventions. This leads one to question how internal capacity within the Civil Service as well as within the CSL is developed and sustained. Secondly, with the outsourcing model, the private sector providers have objectives which may be far removed from those of the civil service. Hence, the key criticism of the CSL is that rather than responding to clients' needs, the institution has been seen as delivering a predetermined (catalogued) suite of products to government (Former NSG: UK Senior Consultant, 2017).

On whether the CSL has developed the requisite competencies, and by definition become a learning organisation, one of the former associates of the former NSG during an interview indicated that

... the CSL chases targets defined as 'numbers trained' and 'events delivered'. Internal staff have even referred to the CSL's new mode of delivery and operations as 'sheep dip' training, and 'stack them high and sell them cheap'. Up to 40 or 50 delegates are 'trained' by only one tutor, resulting in a lack of 1-2-1 attention [...] Learning with these events run more like a mini conference rather than a training course (Former NSG:UK Senior Consultant, 2017).

Given these interesting and equally important insights, there are many lessons to be learnt from the UK case, given the UK's radical departure from providing systematic training, with a dedicated training centre for the public sector in the eighties, to the NSG's eventual closure in 2010. Amongst the many transitions finally resulting in the current institutional arrangement, namely the CSL, its strategy appears to be more forward-looking, modern and geared towards supporting administrative reform. Despite this approach, there appear to be a number of challenges which include the loss of training quality and competency transfer, alongside issues of access to the new learning portals and delivery modes.

3.5 Summary

This chapter provided a comparative overview of three MDIs sourced across the Commonwealth. The rationale for the selection of the three MDIs all within their unique country contexts was provided before describing the current reality for each case. Each of the cases was compiled from a range of data sources which provided broad themes and categories which has resulted in adopting a common framework for documenting each case.

This iterative approach, also informed by the literature review and the interaction with the key staff of these MDIs across all three cases, identified six preliminary categories. These categories are the understanding of each of the unique respective contexts, the institutional setup and governance arrangements, the organisational strategy, organisational systems, organisational culture and values, and, finally, organisational competencies. Based on these predetermined categories, fourteen open-ended questions were constructed and formed the basis of the semi-structured interview. Appendix 2 provides an outline of the questions used during the interviews which were conducted by individuals associated with the case institution. The final write-up of each case was shared with the participants and the Delphi Panel. This, in turn, provided an opportunity for input.

A summary comparison of all three cases is captured in table 3.1. The next chapter, chapter four, will provide a comparative analysis of each of the three cases before developing a model for governance, leadership and management development.

	Context	Institutional Set-up & Governance	Organisational Strategy	Organisational Systems	Organisational Culture & Shared Values	Organisational Competencies
NSG (RSA)	Part of Department of Public Service & Administration. National Skills Development Strategy, Skills Development Act & Public Service HRD Strategy in place. Mandate derived from Public Service Amendment Act.	Headed by a Principal. Funded by government & development partners (ODA). Training Policy and HRD Strategy in place. Transitioned from PSTI, SAMDI & PALAMA into present NSG.	Mandatory training for SMS (18 days). Training is largely outsourced and delivered by HE institutions and private providers, but internal capacity is currently being built. Programmes based on an LD Framework & competencies.	Accredited under SAQA. Both credit- and non-credit-bearing programmes. Blended learning & e-learning gaining momentum. M&E of training and alignment of systems still weak.	Largely bureaucratic, silos, distrust possible due to the various waves of transition and instability. Current focus is on integration, which promotes collective efforts and teamwork.	Inadequate performance management practices, misalignment of current skills to structure, and organisational outcomes.

	Context	Institutional Set-up & Governance	Organisational Strategy	Organisational Systems	Organisational Culture & Shared Values	Organisational Competencies
LBSNAA (India)	Part of the Ministry of Personnel, Public Grievances & Pension (PPGP) – functions as an “attached office”.	Headed by a director. National Training Policy in place since 2012. Follows a Results-Framework Document and reports through an executive council & general council to the Minister of PPGP. Fully government funded.	Mandatory training for new entrants. Foundation Programme 15 weeks; Induction 6 weeks; IAS 26 weeks. Follows 3PM Model. Utilises full-time faculty and public servants to deliver training.	Not accredited – not a requirement. Mostly lecture-based and on-site learning although e-learning programmes are in place. Many extra-curricular activities but lengthy. M&E weak.	Largely bureaucratic, silos. Programmes still knowledge-based and require adapting to a learning organisation mindset in collaborating more.	Little impact and denotes need to transform. More networking, adopting action research as part of training methodology to be more customer-focused and citizen-centred.
Civil Service Learning (UK)	CSL a Directorate and part of Cabinet Office which falls under the Home Office.	Headed by a director who reports to the chief executive of the Civil Service. Although a Competency Framework exists	Mandatory training of 5 days per civil servant per year. All training is outsourced to private providers. Customised Design Framework when responding to requests.	Mostly e-learning. Annual systematic surveys conducted but need to be looped back to training efforts and impact.	Still bureaucratic but with many reform efforts. Has been resistant to change.	Reform efforts to focus on reintroducing Induction training but more as an experiential learning programme delivered in small interactive groups. Capabilities Plan central to transformation.

Table 3.1: Comparative summary of the three case institutions

Chapter 4: A Normative, Grounded Theory of Governance, Management and Leadership Development

“I urge civil servants to embrace NIPAM and utilise its services fully. The onus is now on the governing council and the management of NIPAM to ensure that the Namibian people get the full value of investment that they have made. In other words, NIPAM should not become a white elephant. Rather, it should become a vibrant institution, capable of successfully imparting valuable skills to our civil servants” (H.E. Hifikipunye Pohamba at the launch of NIPAM, 7 February 2011).

4.1 Introduction

The previous chapter provided an overview of three case institutions or MDIs from Commonwealth countries. For purposes of comparison, all three were initially selected on the grounds of commonality. The broad perspectives and contexts which emerged from the comparative analysis of the MDIs from South Africa, India and the UK provide important insights to be considered in the development of a model for governance, management and leadership development which is the theme of this chapter.

4.2 Chapter Objectives and Outline

This chapter gives an overview of the various models of training and development and at the same time provides an analysis of the three Commonwealth country cases examined in the previous chapter. Chapter four thus seeks to address the fourth and fifth question of this study, which is, firstly, to examine the current reality in terms of the existing policies, legislation and institutionalisation of governance, leadership and management development and, secondly, to propose a model which would assist in the transformation of a twenty-first-century public sector. In doing so, the chapter offers an overview of various training models and approaches before analysing the case institutions featured in the previous chapter.

Therefore, the outcome of this chapter will be a normative model using the grounded theory approach, the literature review and the case institutions as supplemented by a series of interviews conducted in two Delphi rounds. Briefly explained, the emerging themes, which shape governance, leadership and management development as they feature across MDIs, form the basis of the questions which are, in turn, contained in the interview schedule. These interviews are conducted on a number of pre-identified experts who were sourced from the three case institutions. Each of the interviews are transcribed and coded, with each of the codes generating different viewpoints and categories which contribute to the emerging model. The transcribed interviews are shared with the experts in two rounds as part of validating the accuracy of the information provided. First, however, an overview of various training models is given in the next section.

4.3 The Governance of Management and Leadership Development Institutes

The literature review highlights the principle objectives of MDIs as instrumental in mobilising global and continental partners to support the improvement of public administration, service delivery and good governance at national, regional and international levels (Afegbua & Adejuwon, 2012:43; Anselmi et al., 2013:2-6; Kiggundu, 1991:19; Van Wart, 2011:13; Ayee, 2008:24; Arinaitwe, 2009:52; Bertucci, 2007:3-9; Ayeni, n.d.:2 UNDESA, 2008:12; Mishra, 1999:14). Their programmes, which are aimed at enhancing the capacity of the public sector in their respective countries and across the continent, should ultimately equip practitioners and public sector officials at all levels in government to possess the requisite knowledge, skills and abilities to function globally. This is a necessary requirement for the establishment and development of capable and strong public sector institutions, which are ultimately tasked with the implementation of the policies and programmes of their governments (Anselmi et al., 2013:3).

Therefore, investigating management and leadership development is a continuing concern within the context of good governance and improved service delivery (Afegbua & Adejuwon, 2012:43). While the literature reviewed emphasises the relative importance of the most appropriate training model for the public sector, many public sector

institutions are facing governance challenges with leadership and their institutional systems (Trakman, 2008:41). Some of the challenges point to issues with the structure of the board and their reporting mechanisms while others are financial which range from austerity measures imposed by government or a decline in the demand for training. With the last two decades seeing a growing trend of MDIs going through some restructuring efforts (Arinaitwe, 2009:5; Kiggundu, 1991:19; Agere, 1999:30), debate about the best model for an MDI has gained fresh prominence with the former South African Minister of Public Services arguing that a one-size-fits-all model should be avoided (Fraser-Moleketi, 2009:xiii).

Similarly, the aspect of the right governance model for an MDI and for learning and development institutions has been subject to considerable discussion. While some governance models have been criticised as being too autocratic or cumbersome, they provide opportunities for MDIs develop and implement good governance practices (Trakman, 2008:41). The generalisability, however, of much published research on the governance of MDIs is problematic. For one, there are questions about whether governments play a dominant role in determining the strategies, methods or agendas of MDIs, which lead to either the failure or the success of the institution (Mabey & Finch-Lees, 2008:38).

In various countries, management and leadership development has adopted different models and approaches with regard to either the training or the governance model, with an equal number of different and country-specific solutions, depending on the country, culture and structure of the government in question (Van Wart, 2011:7; Van Wart et al., 2015:13). Across many public sector organisations, the governance challenge represents a learning gap that requires significant attention (Ricketts & Manville, 2015:1). This requires the establishment of a suitable framework to guide high-level planning, decision-making protocols and mechanisms across the organisation to meet both the internal and external demands it faces (Barden, 2013:165).

With regard to training and institutional arrangements, in France, the *École nationale d'administration* (ENA) carries a prestigious brand and a quasi-monopoly on entry to the

French Civil Service. Participants attending ENA programmes and courses specialise in various fields of public administration with their career trajectory being determined largely by a final examination. Other countries recruit from those who have majored in law, the social sciences or economics and reserve positions in the public sector for those with these requisite qualifications. This approach may be consistent when compared with other national schools such as those in Singapore, Australia, New Zealand and Canada. These institutions appear to adopt a shared governance model which reflects the view that their primary stakeholders, such as the faculty staff and students, have the greatest stake in the institution and therefore ought to run it. The adoption of this model has attracted much criticism mainly in terms of the lack of appropriate competencies the board and faculty members have to execute decisions around financial and human capital matters (Trakman, 2008:42).

The service offering of MDIs can also be contrasted with the type of learning and development offered in the private sector or through universities, such as the Kennedy School of Government at Harvard University, with most of them operating at the fringe of the public service while being part of the public service themselves. Fundamentally, the functions of these institutions revolve around the delivery of three key services: training massification for junior and supervisory-level public servants; executive or senior management development; and, finally, the delivery of high-quality consultancy and action-oriented research projects. These services, in turn, are affected by the institutional setup and culture which require an understanding of what the institution requires at a particular point in time and the modifications necessary in adopting a preferred governance model (Trackman, 2008:43).

Balancing the internal, external and context-specific environment is therefore a critical consideration in developing an appropriate model of governance, management and leadership development. While there are various models utilised by MDIs, each with their advantages and disadvantages, depending on their respective contexts, they should all ideally be in a position to remodel both their training models as well as their governance structures, protocols and processes. In theory, there are proposed models which are suitable for a variety of purposes, such as operational, financial and corporate purposes

(Barden, 2013:165). In practice, however, what is required is a dual governance and training model that is aligned to the goals and objectives of their organisations and is collectively understood, owned and governed by not only the entire organisation but also the stakeholders for which it exists.

Therefore, the findings of this section provide insights into the development of a future model of governance, management and leadership development which is presented in the final part of this chapter. Before explaining the emerging and normative model, it is necessary to describe some of the more commonly used models for training and development in the next section.

4.4. Models of Training and Development

4.4.1. The Educational Approach

The educational model appears to be popular due to its value proposition for individuals and their learning and further educational advancement needs (Erasmus et al., 2013:23). Programmes under this model are developed externally and usually articulate into formal qualifications registered on a national qualifications framework. Attendance of the programmes involve attending classes over the course of a year (or longer) through various platforms such as open or distance learning, e-learning, classroom-based interactions or telematic sessions.

In terms of the application of the educational approach to management and leadership development, the model is criticised as too rigid and highly structured (Erasmus & Van Dyk, 2003:48). Hence, the approach may not necessarily lend itself well towards providing innovative training or advocating for a proactive means of developing supply-led or mandatory programmes. These programmes could include courses on performance management or procurement training.

4.4.2 The Systems Approach to Training

The systems approach to training (SAT) which is based on instructional systems design (ISD) is widely used in the United States of America (Carnevale et al., 1990:54). The SAT is characterised by the interdependence of the organisation and its systems with the external environment. Furthermore, since an organisation is dependent on the environment within which it functions, it is referred to as open when there is interaction between the system and the environment and closed when such interaction is absent (Erasmus et al., 2013:23). In other words, an organisation as a system obtains inputs from the environment, processes them into products and services, and then provides outputs in the environment. The model has undergone a number of variations and adaptations but usually depicts the interdependence of all three elements together with the external and internal environment as illustrated in Figure 4.1.

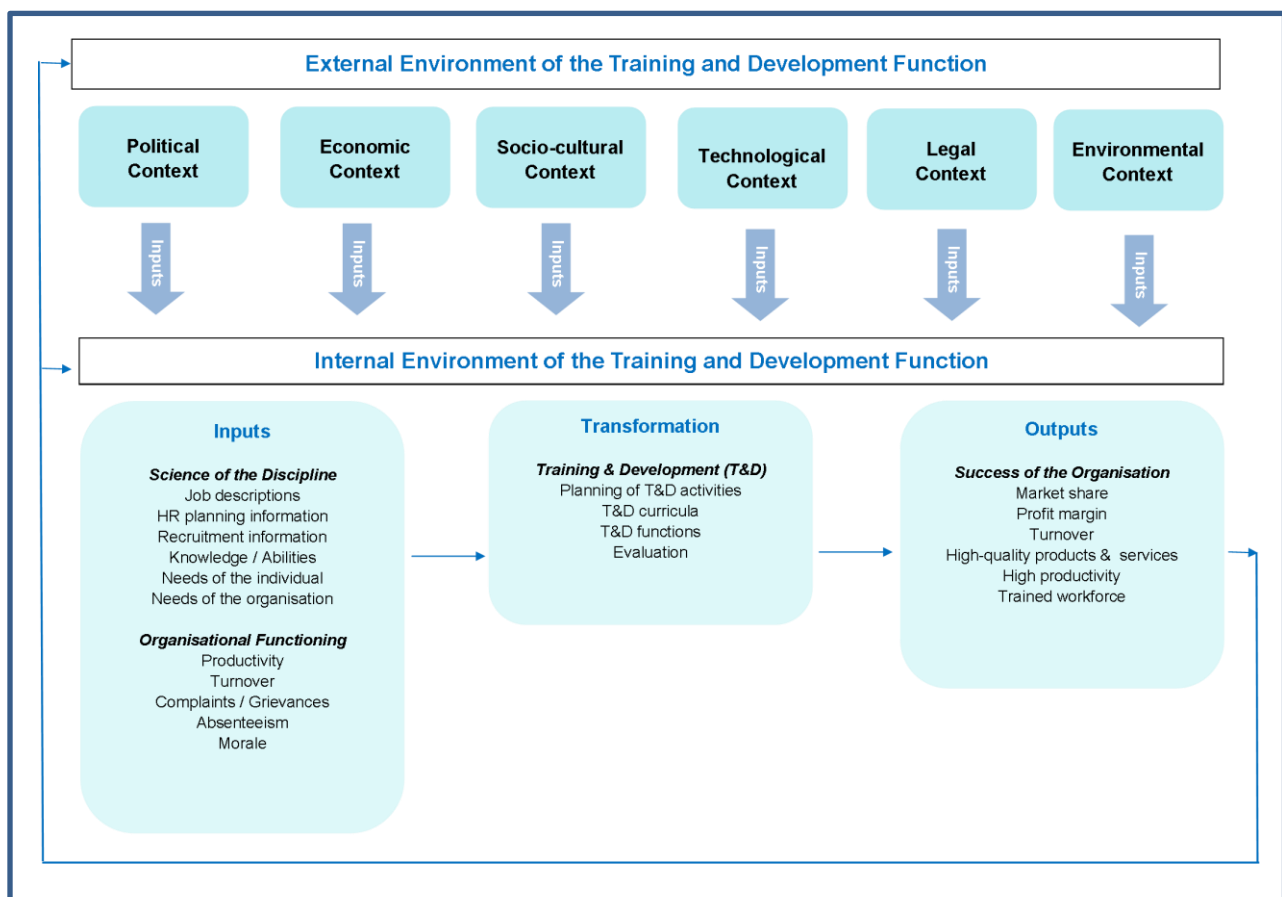


Figure 4.1: The systems approach of training and development (Adapted from Erasmus et al., 2013:25)

Most SAT models and their variations typically follow the same circular process and a number of characteristics. Firstly, the external environment, which consists of the political, economic, socio-cultural, technological, legal and environmental context, is likely to influence the training and development function in a number of ways. These include aspects such as the choice of service provider and market share, competition with other service providers as well as changing needs in terms of technology to name a few. Regarding the internal environment, aspects which influence the quality of training and service delivery, such as job descriptions and human resource planning, amongst other organisational issues, require careful attention as these are likely to influence the organisation negatively.

The second characteristic of the SAT model is that the aspect of transformation refers to the training and development (T&D) function. With this, the emphasis is on the importance of conceptualising the delivery of training in a planned, systematic and structured manner. The model also stresses the importance of evaluating training so that the feedback generated can also be used to improve and enhance the other training components.

With regard to its application to management and leadership development, a key critique of the SAT is that it does not necessarily prescribe how the model is utilised as a best practice approach to management of the training function. Furthermore, the model is seen to be firmly rooted in what is referred to as the strategic management paradigm (Taylor, 1991:277).

4.4.3 The Training Process Model

The training process model or the procedural approach is based on a number of key prerequisites for the implementation of the training cycle (Erasmus & Van Dyk, 2003:52). These key requisites are: firstly, the existence of a training policy; secondly, a well-formulated process of systematically assessing and defining periodic training needs; thirdly, the creation and implementation of training plans; fourthly, the premise that training is adequately resourced, not only in financial terms but also in

terms of the responsibility for training in all job descriptions; and, finally, the assessment of the training results. The emphasis of the training process model is largely on the process and the elements that comprise the model rather than on the content or delivery of the training itself, which is also one of its main criticisms (Erasmus & Van Dyk, 2003:53).

4.4.4 Nadler's Model

Nadler's model, which is also referred to as the critical events model, is considered a more holistic approach to training and development. It has been associated with the need for organisations to provide evidence that training has significantly contributed to improved organisational performance (Nadler, 1982:14). Additionally, the model follows a framework of features, which begins with the organisational training needs, followed by an analysis of the knowledge, skills and attitude required to perform various jobs, thereby emphasising its role in relationship to performance.

The information for this is usually taken from the job descriptions and forms the basis of developing new courses for new employees. In instances where job performance can be measured, the level of competency are further defined. These standards are described in terms of an activity, behaviour or outcome of a job to be performed, criteria for performance, and range statements which outline the level of knowledge, skills and attitude required to be considered competent (Nadler, 1982:14).

Once these have been established, training objectives are formulated upon which training is then based. The development of a syllabus to support the achievement of the objectives is the next step. When following this step, the choice of instructional strategies to deliver the training is critical, since these should be carefully selected to suit the unique challenges of each context. The seventh step considers the need to plan and budget for resources required to deliver the training. These resources refer to the physical, financial and human resources required to deliver the training programmes which will lead to the eighth and final step in the critical events model. (Nadler, 1982:14). Figure 4.2 depicts the critical events model, which is also known as Nadler's model.

Some of the criticisms of this model include the fact that the training outcomes could include less tangible consequences; in addition, the model is silent on the direct benefits to the organisation which may suggest that the original problem is not necessarily addressed, though there may be unforeseen, yet valuable, results. However, Nadler's model forms the basis of the systematic training model, in particular the belief that an organisation's strategy is deemed to be most effective and tangible when it is converted into training objectives in a systematic and sequential manner. Such a process highlights the importance of strategy evaluation through the measurement of the training results (Nadler, 1982:18; Erasmus & Van Dyk, 2003:58).

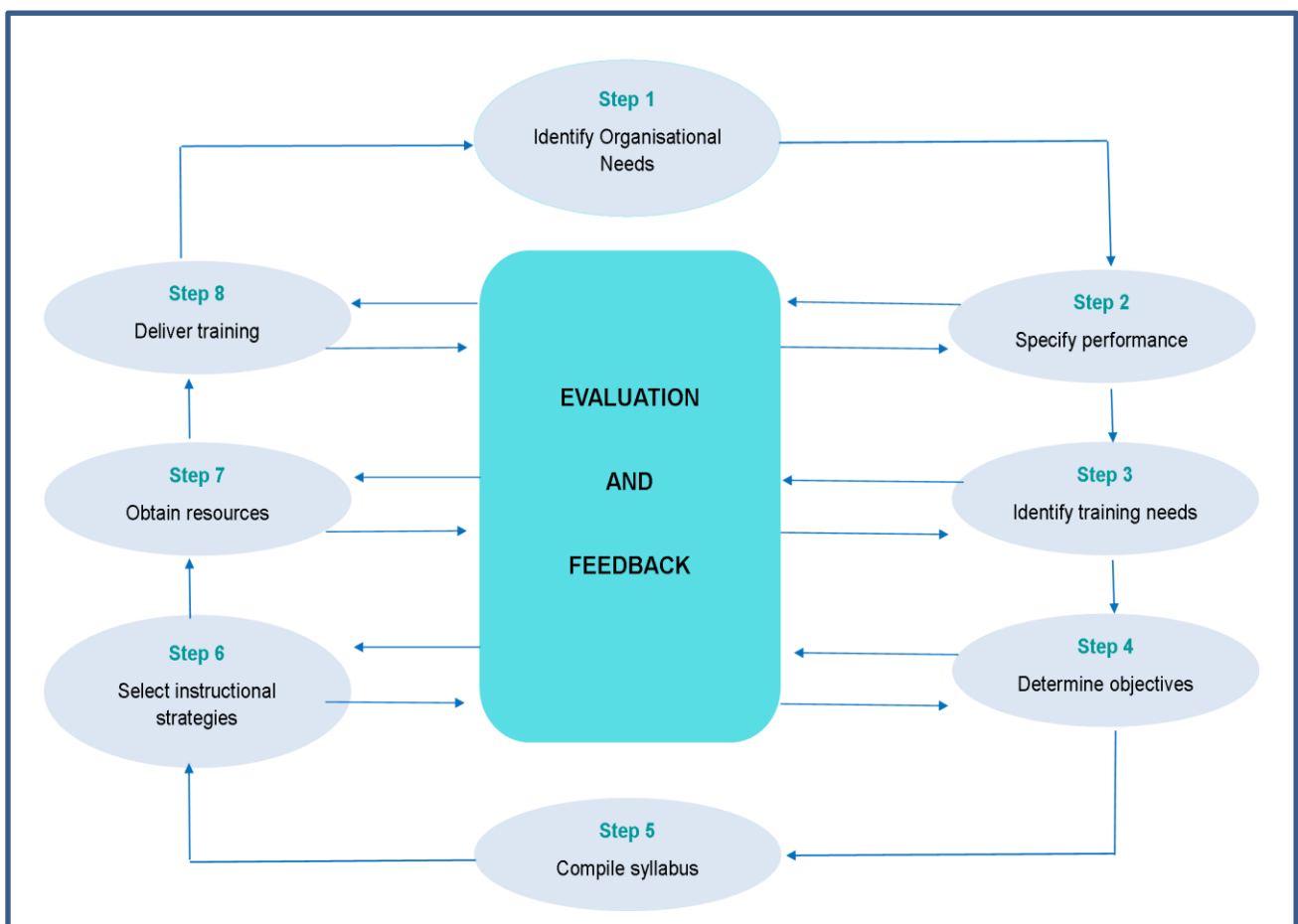


Figure 4.2: Nadler's Model (adapted from Nadler, 1982:14)

4.4.5 Training as Consultancy

What the other models lack in terms of flexibility and responsiveness, the training as consultancy model makes up for in many ways. It has been described as a dynamic model, which embraces and promotes the growth of both the organisation and personal satisfaction for individuals (Sloman, 1999:211). In this model, the consultant is sourced by the organisation and is viewed as an independent expert who provides specialist advice. In contrast, training is seen as an internal function and is driven from within the organisation. Thus, trainers are more than consultants in that they are responsible for providing expert advice but also taking on an internal management role in improving the organisation (Sloman, 1999:212).

The training as consultancy model specifically features training and consultancy as two separate approaches, each with its specific role. Hence, the role of the trainer as a consultant should not be confused with the distinctive features of the trainer role. Accordingly, there are trainers who, depending on their circumstances and role take on the role of a consultant rather than approach an activity that should have been devised as a fully fledged training intervention. Therefore, it is important to differentiate between a trainer or training manager whose role is to develop the skills of the individuals through training and a consultant whose role is to manage the collective inputs of capacity development which include training and the use of other consultants external to the organisation. Very different processes are required to deliver training than to manage the consultancy service input from elsewhere (Sloman, 1999:213).

Before providing critique on the consultancy model as it applies to management and leadership development, it must be stated that the relationship between the consultant and the organisation is useful in that there is an element of skills transfer as internal staff are exposed to a different skills set typically utilised by the external consultants. The consultancy cycle typically consists of four key stages, namely orientation, problem identification, exploration and resolution. These stages may provide the internal training staff with a different tool and framework within which to manage a training intervention as a consultancy project (Mulligan & Barber, 1998:71-78).

The main criticism of the model is that the last phase, resolution, is typically a phase which relates to the relationship between external people and people of the organisation. When the problem has been resolved, there is no need for the relationship to continue and it is duly terminated, given that internal capacity has been built and the challenges resolved (Mulligan & Barber, 1998:79). Internal trainers, however, by virtue of their role, do not need to terminate their relationship with the organisation and have no cause to disengage from the organisation in any way. In an ideal organisational environment, the internal trainers continuously provide ongoing training in other areas of weakness.

4.4.6 Continuous Professional Development

Continuous professional development (CPD) refers to the process of tracking and documenting the skills, knowledge and experience that an individual gains through formal and non-formal interventions and extends beyond initial training. In simplified terms, CPD carries a record of what an individual experiences, learns and then applies on the job. According to the CPD Certification Service in the UK, “CPD combines different methodologies to learning, such as training workshops, conferences and events, e-learning programs, best practice techniques and ideas sharing, all focused for an individual to improve and have effective professional development” (CPD UK, 2017). The CPD model can, however, be criticised for the absence of clear guidelines on how an individual would utilise CPD in making the transition from an existing position to an improved future position. It is similarly criticised for being too rigid in setting absolute standards (Kennedy, 2005:235).

The models of the training process reviewed so far relate to the process of providing training at a particular moment in time. They do not, however, refer to how the training and development function can be used as a process of continuously improving individual competencies or the organisation’s collective capabilities for improved performance. The next four models in this section cover how the training function has been aligned and developed to achieve organisational objectives.

The first model is based on the *Statement on Continuous Development* adopted by the Institute of Personnel Management (IPM). The IPM has produced a code of conduct and recommendations for members and institutions to encourage and embed learning in order to achieve a better performance level (IPM, 2015:1). In the UK, there are seven areas which highlight how the CPD principles support the enhancement of organisational capabilities. These areas include, amongst others, a policy position and implementation modalities, which highlight the need for continuous professional development, and the furtherance of the policy's objectives across the organisation. Next, the roles and responsibilities spell out the levels and all those who will be undertaking CPD. A detailed training needs analysis report follows this, highlighting opportunities for learning and the various sources of learning both within and outside the organisation. Another aspect of CPD is its position as a learner- or participant-centred approach to development which may be maximised through encouragement and integration across the organisation. Access to learning resources and, in particular, the organisation's position on how CPD will be accessed, funded and provided for are described. Finally, the statement on CDP highlights the potential benefits to the participant and the organisation in its entirety (CPD UK, 2017).

While the CPD model is seen as a model of best practice within training and development circles, given the manner in which training is aligned across the organisation and embraces an ultimate state of continuous development, it is not free of criticism. The main criticism of the CPD model is that the standards of continuous development are absolute and are not necessarily within the control of the individual's direct supervisor. For example, with CPD, the incentive for continuous professional development is within the remit of the chief executive officer and/or the senior manager responsible for organisational or human capital development and not necessarily based on the individual's needs. Similarly, in key policy issues related to purpose, authority and power, the "why" is not given as much attention as the "how" (Kennedy, 2005:236).

4.4.7 Competency-based Training and Development

The OECD (2005) defines competencies as the ability to meet complex demands, by drawing on and mobilising the development of knowledge, skills and psychosocial resources in a particular context (OECD, 2005:4). However, the definitive impulse that awarded legitimacy to the formation of competencies was done in 2006, in the context of the European Economic Community, through the recommendation of the European Parliament and the European Council. The relevance of this document is major, since it makes explicit the notion of permanent learning and identifies the substantial difference between competences and key competences or basic competences. The latter are “those that everyone requires for their realisation and personal development, and also for active citizenship, social inclusion and employment” (European Parliament and Council, 2006:13). These principles are premised on the need for good communication, flexibility, problem-solving, decision-making, critical thinking, initiative and teamwork – all competencies required in the workplace of the future.

4.4.8 Training as Progression

Almost three decades ago, a group of researchers from Ashridge Management College developed a training classification framework which covered three levels of sophistication (Sloman, 1999:56). Supported by an intensive desk exercise and detailed in-depth interviews with managers of successful companies across the UK, the final report was released in 1986 as a publication entitled “Management for the Future”. The three levels of training highlighted in the report, starting with the lowest level, suggest that training is a cost rather than an investment. The report further maintains that as the level of sophistication in training increases, the second level entails that organisations are more likely to adopt a more formalised approach where training becomes a structured and integrated exercise across the organisation. Finally, the third level of training refers to when an organisation is more focused on training being at the centre of the organisation’s success (Sloman, 1999:57). Organisations achieving this level of sophistication are described in the report as “learning organisations”, a term which is explained in the next section.

While the Ashridge model is seen as more descriptive than prescriptive, it positions itself as an ideal model for training and development in an organisation. Supported by the use of indicators common to training, the model is equally well devised to assist with the monitoring and the evaluation of the training function. On the downside, the Ashridge model will only work optimally in an organisation that already has systems and well-defined structures, as it is not effective in dealing with the detailed intricacies of management of the training function, particularly in unreceptive and bureaucratic organisations such as the public service (Sloman, 1999:57).

4.4.9 The Learning Organisation

The learning organisation concept has emerged as an important model not only to organisations providing training but also to many twenty-first-century organisations. The term has evolved from the principles of organisational learning and has achieved a currency and prominence amongst the training and management development community (Argyris & Schon, 1978). Part of its evolution includes the development of the concept of single- and double-loop organisational learning, which in principle involves the detection of mistakes and their subsequent rectification. If the organisation fails to amend and adapt the current status of policies and procedures within the organisation despite the discovery and correction of mistakes, the process is described as single-loop organisational learning. If, however, the detection and correction activities modify and change fundamental policies, systems and performance, the organisation can be said to have undergone double-loop learning. This process includes learning from and through others, interacting with others and taking ownership of the change management process. This also means that while organisations evolve through the collaboration and learning process across their structures, the correct culture to embrace change and capitalise on shared experiences is equally important and needs to be in place (Argyris & Schon, 1978:35).

The main idea behind the learning organisation includes the development of individual potential within the organisation and institutionalisation of learning as a continuous process rather than a series of training interventions. Learning is thus incorporated into the core business elements and advocating of continuous learning (Argyris & Schon, 1978:35). By

definition, evaluation and learning reviews of business activities are held and these are similarly linked to rewards and improved performance of the organisation. Lastly, the organisation should institutionalise policies and procedures to improve and foster organisational learning to ensure that both physical and mental processes are equally involved in changing the behaviour patterns from the norm (Sloman, 1999:213).

Proponents of the learning organisation advocate for continuous learning across the organisation, ranging from distance learning, the signing of learning contracts, the formation of learning groups, coaching and mentoring interventions and the establishment of a learning culture, often relating this to the knowledge management strategy and system of the organisation. Relating the learning organisation to management and leadership development, the term resonates well with the learning cycle concept (Kolb, 1984:35). This is a four-stage cyclical process which begins with the first stage, namely experience, followed by observation and reflection on the experience, which comprise the second stage. The third stage consists of developing concepts and constructs based on the reflective experience. The fourth stage tests the newly developed concepts by repeating the experience or by experimenting with the concepts under new conditions. This becomes a new experience again, thus looping back to stage one in continuing the cycle (Kolb, 1984:36).

Tying the learning cycle concept to the learning organisation results in a juxtaposition of an individual's experience of the learning cycle and that of the organisation. It is therefore important that if learning at both individual and institutional level is to be realised fully, the organisation should ensure that there is adequate opportunity for what Kolb (1984:35) refers to as "systematic reflection" and "abstract conceptualisation", stages two and three of the learning cycle respectively, to take place. Returning to the ongoing discourse around the principles of learning theory and organisational learning, the learning company or the learning organisation emerged in the eighties (Peters & Waterman, 1982:113). In one of the revolutionary works of that era, the publication, *In Search of Excellence*, described the learning company as an adaptive organisation with the capacity to evolve by

... trying lots of things, experimenting, making the right sorts of mistakes; that is to say, it is fostering its own mutations. The adaptive corporation has learned quickly

to kill off the dumb mutations and invest heavily in the ones that work” (Peters & Waterman, 1982:114).

On a similar note, the learning organisation is therefore an organisation which promotes the learning of its own members to its collective betterment, given the right environmental conditions. This concept has been expanded to complement systems thinking in other works (Senge, 1990:57). In one of these works, *The Fifth Discipline: The Art and Practice of the Learning Organization*, a learning organisation is described as an organisation that has developed a mastery of five main disciplines which gradually converge to manifest as an innovative form.

The first of these five disciplines is personal mastery. This is the ability of the individual to clarify aspects that are important and advantageous to him or herself. The second discipline is that of team learning, which is described as a collective discussion wherein preconceived assumptions are deferred so that only genuine and collective thinking takes place. The third discipline, mental models, accentuates the ability of individuals to assess how internal issues relate to the world and how the interplay of these shape current and future actions. Shared vision, the fourth discipline, describes the capacity to develop group commitment and cohesive actions towards shaping a future world. Finally, the fifth discipline, systems thinking, describes the ability to see all parts of the whole working collectively in unison, seeking solutions for the good of the organisation (Senge, 1990:44).

Thus, the principle of the learning organisation rests on an organisation’s leadership and ability to champion the concept prior to implementing any of the five disciplines. Similarly, since the principles of a learning organisation advocate for a holistic and systems approach to learning, all work activities automatically become opportunities to learn continuously and advance a collective and institutionalised learning approach to work. It is also argued that in a learning organisation deliberate efforts are made through reflecting continuously, sharing learning in a collegial manner and working towards a collective vision of an improved future organisation. Hence, a learning organisation becomes more than just an organisation advocating for continuous training and development but an

organisation which adopts learning as a fundamental element of its day-to-day activity over and above what is required to execute its function and mandate (Senge, 1990:60).

While the learning organisation has gained wide acceptance as an expression of the desired or ideal state for continuous development of the members of the organisation and the organisation itself, it is not free of criticism. The key criticism of the learning organisation model is that the term in itself is a misnomer, given that change will only occur in an organisation which itself supports the ideals of a learning organisation (Sloman, 1999:213). One of the other wider criticisms of the learning organisation model is that considerable efforts are required to creating such a culture and environment conducive to learning. This is not always within the control of the organisation (Sloman, 1999:214). Moreover, the concept of a learning organisation is also not always easy to understand, given its abstract foundations and individuals' personal understanding. In general, however, there is wide acceptance that learning organisations are perceived positively. The more valuable discussions point towards learning organisations in which philosophical constructs are converted into practical advice and solutions which are implementable.

4.4.10 The Learning Governance Model

Deloitte (2015) defines learning governance as “the formal framework for managing decisions about learning and talent development”. In relation to this, good governance is defined as an overall construct that corresponds to the assignment of accountability, defines priorities, allocates budget and resources, drives actionable decision-making and facilitates transformation. These two rudimentary definitions lay the foundation of how learning governance supports good governance and how it is critical to the development of learning organisations (Deloitte, 2015:8; Deloitte, 2012:12).

The principle of learning governance is embedded in organisational or corporate governance establishments, which dictate that the interests of stakeholders (which include shareholders, management, customers, suppliers, creditors, government and the broader community) should be addressed and catered for. In theory, therefore, governance models

for various functions within an organisation inherit their priorities from the overarching governance model of the organisation. Thus, there is a principal alignment amongst the governance of operations, financial governance and even marketing governance to the main governance model. It follows that learning and development departments are also required to align with the goals of their organisations (Deloitte, 2015:9; Deloitte Development LLC, 2017:10).

With all eight models of training and development briefly described and discussed in the foregoing section, two key aspects have emerged. The first is that the various models of training and development each has its own approach towards the perceived value of training and development and the role that the various stakeholders play in the process. The second aspect is that for training and development to have any impact on performance, it should not only be seen as an investment but also be aligned with the organisational strategy and deliberately selected on its merits. In this regard, the Learning Maturity Scale is a useful analytical tool which was developed in 2003 by a training practitioner and endorsed by the UK Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development to describe and assess a number of stages of organisational maturity.

The tool is also used as a yardstick to determine where an organisation is in terms of its attitude to training (Kearns, 2005:14). The Learning Maturity Scale depicted in Figure 4.3 illustrates an adapted version to include learning governance, which is the last stage of organisational maturity.

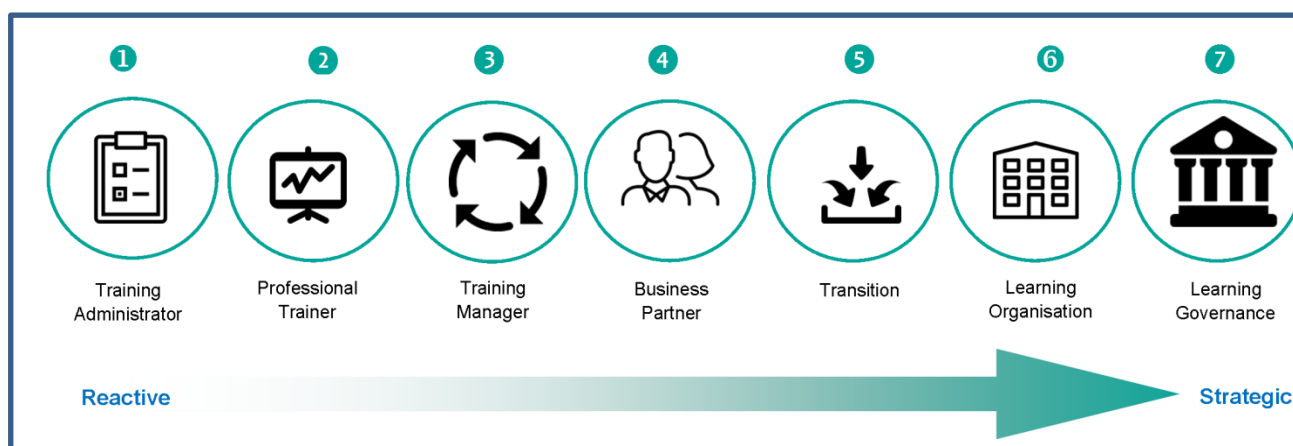


Figure 4.3: The Learning Maturity Scale (Kearns, 2005)

As indicated, the Learning Maturity Scale describes the evolution of learning and the corresponding stage of maturity at which the organisation is functioning. Considered an objective tool, it assists with analysing whether the organisation is applying the principles of learning at all levels (Kearns, 2005:15).

Briefly explained, there are seven cumulative stages. The first stage is the training administration function, which is the most rudimentary form of training that an organisation can provide. This stage illustrates the start-up phase of a training organisation, where both the CEO and board members have no interest in training and do not understand the importance of training. Their main focus would be on the numbers trained and on the compliance and regulatory requirements to which the institute should adhere. Organisations at stage one deliver mainly generic management and leadership courses, with the bulk of the training provided concentrating on on-demand and ad hoc training courses. Training is therefore reactive and unfocused with the only training measures being the number of participant days and the minimisation of costs in terms of the costing exercise.

Stage two depicts the organisation moving towards professionalising the delivery of training through acknowledging that standards are required to realise quality training. Characterised by little regard for consistency, the organisation has very few or no systems in place. There appears to be some acknowledgement that the provision of e-learning as one of the channels of delivery would enhance learning but this would not necessarily prove maturity. The approach to training delivery is still described as reactive with staff in the organisation merely responding to perceived needs. There is also a heavy emphasis on advancing a production line mentality, where processes are merely introduced to give the semblance that both training and administrative departments or units are collaborating under the guise of introducing more bureaucracy.

Stage three characterises the need for a shift in the training perspective from sporadic, haphazard and uncoordinated to an approach which bases all training to be provided on training needs. There is a growing mutual respect between trainers and administrators working in harmony towards training provision. This stage, despite being more focused

and based on actual organisational needs, is still described as being relatively immature (Kearns, 2005:18).

The next stage, stage four, depicts a deliberate movement towards incorporating an evaluation system while focusing on the customer as the focal point. Such a system integrates the training needs, evaluation of the training attended, its projected costs and revenue but also future and anticipated training. The training which is provided by the organisation follows a collaborative process of learning consultation with the training institution adopting the role of a business partner for the client. Interventions have a leaning towards bespoke training redesign, just-in time training, online streaming and e-learning to accommodate various delivery modes and high customisation.

With stage five, the transitioning stage, there is a move from what organisational learning scholars have referred to as organisations transitioning from single- to double-loop learning (Argyris & Schon, 1978:2-3) which takes place across all levels across all functions of the organisation. There is teamwork and cross-functionality through which all departments are able to resolve an issue collaboratively in reaching a satisfactory, client-centred solution. There are established roles, responsibilities and process owners who take the responsibility and accountability, while being duly empowered to take remedial actions to resolve the problem(s). The end of stage five symbolises that organisational learning has started to occur and the realisation that a holistic and collective approach is fundamental to improved service delivery.

Organisational learning only really takes place during stage six, which is an organisation establishing maturity. Shared and added values only promote learning, thus embracing the concept of knowledge management and innovation while promoting engagement amongst staff to realise their full potential. All employees and staff are regarded as assets with common and shared values, indicating a movement away from a culture of blame (Kearns, 2005:20).

Learning governance, which has been included in the initial Maturity Scale, is the final organisational learning and points to a future and ideal stage. This includes the transfer of

knowledge from the organisation to the outer system to involve both internal and external stakeholders in crafting a broad framework for defining accountability, training priorities, budget allocation, and decision-making in facilitating transformation across sectors and levels (Deloitte, 2015:12).

With all eight models briefly described and discussed in the foregoing section, a number of key lessons have emerged. These aspects draw attention to the importance of context, the governance and institutional arrangements, the operational strategy, organisational systems, culture and, finally, the organisational competencies required for a new MDI model which are discussed in the next section.

4.5 Lessons Learnt in Developing a New Model

In the previous section, eight models and their relevance to governance, management and leadership development were provided. In this section, the lessons taken from the case institutions described in chapter three are highlighted, given that they provide several insights into governance, management and leadership development across the various public services and sectors. In particular, the cases illustrate how MDIs, which have been set up by their own governments, may experience obstacles and challenges from the very pressures and cultures they seek to change. These results are in line with those of previous studies (Ayee, 2008:2; Commonwealth Network, 2016:1-12; Anselmi et al., 2013:6; Ayeni, n.d.:3 UNDESA, 2008:6; Mishra, 1999:14) and, together with the discussion of the various training models described in the first part of this chapter, move towards fulfilling the research objective of developing a proposed model of governance, leadership and management development.

4.5.1 Context

As mentioned in chapter three, the context refers to both the external forces which are not within the control of the institution. Relating this to the literature review, it is also important to point out that a one-size-fits-all approach should be avoided, given that each country experiences its own set of unique context-specific challenges. From the case studies,

however, there are similarities which were also found to be applicable to the MDIs under study. These themes are prevalent in the thematic analysis conducted across the cases.

A recurrent theme in both the literature review and throughout the interviews was a sense amongst interviewees that the vision of the MDI has to be a clearly crafted strategic vision, which supports the respective government's administrative reform agenda. The vision should be clear and should be aligned with its mandate. This mandate should be supported under a specific policy or legal instrument and aligned to organisation-specific and broader public sector learning and development strategies. This finding is consistent with the marginalisation and public service reform challenges experienced by MDIs as highlighted in the literature (Agere, 1999:3; Economic Commission for Africa, 2003:2; Olaopa, 2009:23; Olaopa, 2013:12).

It was also suggested that the coordinating role of MDIs regarding capacity development be formally strengthened so that governments' priorities are supported and well communicated in a timely manner to correspond with government's economic and budgetary planning and performance cycles. This will ensure that the capacity development interventions and initiatives are relevant and responsive and are aligned with current needs.

4.5.2 Governance & Institutional Setup

The aspects pertaining to an MDI's vision are outlined in its governance and institutional setup arrangements in relation to the public sector. This is in contrast to the mission, which determines the direction of the organisation and outlines its *raison d'être*, i.e. its reason for existence. The model which an MDI has adopted may be considered, and in many cases is often perceived as, a mere front to create the semblance of good and responsible governance practices (Trakman, 2008:43). Therefore, the selection of an appropriate governance model should ideally be consultative and collaborative in determining the outcomes of a particular approach or framework.

From the case studies, the UK NSG was the outcome of several parallel pressures from various parts of government requiring change. As a result, it was established to provide possible solutions to various levels of problems and challenges. The UK NSG was then given various roles and responsibilities depending on the target beneficiaries or clients. Another informant who indicated that the UK NSG worked in isolation from the rest of government echoed this view.

The NSG did not engage with departments as well as it would have wished, and could not resolve a number of longer term problems about the right model for civil service training. It was a miracle that it stayed open until 2012, and was then replaced by Civil Service Learning (Former NSG: UK Senior Consultant, 2017)

When comparing the UK case with the South African NSG, it can be seen that there have been a similar series of transformation and repositioning exercises from SAMDI, to PALAMA, and eventually to the current form, namely the NSG. Throughout the exercise, there have been questions around the right governance model to adopt. As one interviewee said:

We have a number of challenges to which we need to find solutions - the fact that there are so many overqualified managers in the public sector, yet there is still poor capacity to deliver; what its role should be - to consolidate, coordinate or to serve as broker (Former NSG: UK Senior Consultant, 2017)?

In India, the capacity development of subnational governments takes place at various institutions such as the National Institute of Rural Development (NIRD). In order for capacity development to be meaningful, the existing system of administration to determine, design and deliver training has to undergo fundamental changes. This has not happened to the extent envisioned. One of the main reasons cited by one of the key informants is “the perceived reluctance of the civil service to accept the changes in control and accountability as well as the new roles and responsibilities”. This may also be attributed to the socialisation of public servants which emphasises command and control methods rather than responding to shared values and aspirations.

Adding to these waves of transition and emergent questions are the issues regarding the understanding, the deficiencies and the unique institutional modifications to the governance models which the respective MDIs have adopted to achieve certain outcomes. Governance cannot be discussed in isolation from the organisational structure. In this study, organisational structure refers to the manner in which internal systems for executing a strategy is established, including the functions, protocols, processes, degree of specialisation, hierarchy and number of staff. Depending on the organisation and country concerned, the structure is influenced, and may possibly be constrained, by political, economic, social, technological, legal and environmental crosscurrents. The organisational structure of all three case institutions illustrate the prevalence of many MDIs replicating the traditional public service pyramid in establishing their structures (Mhone, 2003:7-8). This seems to support the argument advanced by other authors in the field that mechanistic, bureaucratic organisations with hierarchical structures and excessively centralised controls do not encourage learning (Swieringa & Wierdsma, 1992:54). In addition, rigid institutional structures promote the disengagement of staff, particularly from becoming co-learners with external players or key stakeholders.

4.5.3 Operational Strategy

Since the operational strategy refers to an organisation's approach in achieving its goals and objectives, it is similarly intertwined with the mandate, mission and objectives of the MDI. The participants on the whole suggested that in developing the MDI's strategy, consideration should be given to the development of systematic tools in identifying the key priorities of government. The information gained from this could be further utilised to develop new and more relevant programmes. Intertwined with this suggestion was the recurring issue of clarifying the role and mandate of the MDI. For example, one interviewee, on the closure of the UK NSG, said, "It was trying to be everything under the sun to everyone, but never quite managed to achieve any of them satisfactorily".

Part of the operational strategy includes the services that an MDI renders. These refer to the unique value propositions, knowledge, design and range of offering an MDI provides to its clients and are affected by a number of extraneous forces, namely the clientele, the

degree of customisation and responsiveness. This theme came up, for example, in discussions regarding response time and ability to serve the client. One of the interviewees described the client as the “heart” of the MDI and largely instrumental in shaping the organisation. In this regard, and with public services becoming more customer-centric, a client’s degree of satisfaction with services rendered is related to their levels of loyalty. Similarly, the more individualised a training intervention or service is customised to meet individual needs, the more satisfied the client will be with the service.

The UK government has realised that relevance, responsiveness and client satisfaction are intertwined and has deliberately taken steps to address this. Its revolutionary move to outsource the training function through the CSL is a deliberate strategy to respond to training requests faster, customise the training and through this remain relevant through the use of technology to support this change. Their delivery of highly customised, online training and e-learning interventions has been innovative and in time will evolve to include other focused and more bespoke personal development interventions. Given this, it is apparent that an MDI’s services have to undergo constant and continuous improvement given that the variety of needs and new services will have to be commensurate with faster, more rapid means of decision-making. In addition, it appears that working with a number of businesses of different sizes allows government to combine value for money with tailor-made expertise.

Instead of a lecture-based programme, the NSG UK developed a multifaceted experiential learning programme that includes a range of activities centred around the individual. A typical snapshot of one day would include a simulation and the use of technology through e-learning. To ensure that the learning is sustainable and integrated into daily work, there is a filming of the individual in the simulation session as well as a follow-up on similar sessions. Through this multidimensional approach, participants are introduced to the world of information and communication technology where agility and disruptive innovation are the norm.

By the same token, senior leaders of the UK CSL have stated that the new mode of delivery aims to support government by providing services geared at uplifting the capacity

of the civil service. The new approach is positioned to operate at world-class level, is flexible, is tailored and is relevant for all civil servants. This will contribute towards building a learning culture and collaborative learning (Spencer, 2016). One of the senior executives of the CSL has indicated that the new approach to outsource training represents a new paradigm of capacity development for civil servants. This initiative, which supports the development of capabilities across government, seeks to ensure that the requisite capacities are developed to deliver the best public services for a modern Britain.

With one part of the operational strategy focusing on training created, the other issues pertaining to an MDI's mandate in providing research and consultancy require attention. The approach that the LBSNAA in India has taken with regard to research appears to provide some useful guidance. According to one of the respondents, the LBSNAA like many other Indian MDIs pride themselves in undertaking action research for government. These research papers provide the much-needed evidence base required to make robust policy decisions. Many of the researchers who have taken part in sector-specific research are also invited as keynote speakers to give presentations at the various management development programmes to share their research findings but also to engage with participants and trainees about how to embed the research findings into useful tools to support areas of policy development and implementation.

4.5.4 Organisational Systems

Systems correspond with both an organisation's strategy and structure and comprise vertical and horizontal enablers. Vertical systems may be set out to ensure planning and allocation of resources, while horizontal systems speak to the procedures in place to fulfil the organisation's commitment to effective service delivery. In linking this to MDIs, all those interviewed from the case institutions indicated that there is a need for MDIs to adopt common training and development standards, for consistent measurement, monitoring and evaluation purposes. The adoption of common standards promotes consistency and predictability and strengthens existing systems and accountability.

Similarly, the design phase of developing training programmes and courses is critical to the performance of an MDI insofar as most of the respondents interviewed believe that the design of the course or programme is critical to the training cycle. Fundamentally, the design phase should be a systematic, rational and logical process intended to solve problems identified in a needs analysis of an organisation. Since it is a critical phase, the elements covered should include seven key aspects: the design and plan for an MDI to address competency gaps across the public sector; the development of a plan in which the competency gaps are to be addressed; the evaluation criteria; the obstacles and risks to not achieving the plan; the rationale for training methods employed in the training and the rationale for their selection; the identification of unique characteristics and propositions for the training; and even the establishment of criteria for the selection of the trainer(s).

The design of a training system should therefore consider a holistic and systematic process of analysing, designing, developing, implementing and evaluating training interventions and programmes. At the same time, MDIs should focus on the outcomes of a government's development agenda – whether it is to improve service delivery across the public sector or whether it is to create shared value. Adopting this focus promotes opportunities for feedback and reflection and cultivates a learning organisation mindset and promotes a culture of continuous experimentation and learning.

The above discussion around the context, operational strategy and the various case studies intends to highlight the difficulties in repositioning MDIs for their role in transforming the public service individually as offices, ministries, departments and agencies or collectively into a learning organisation. The public service operates in, and must be sensitive to, a macroeconomic and politically determined environment over which it has little control. The relative neglect of the reflective (learning) dimension of management and leadership development experiences therefore comes as no surprise.

In the public sector, disproportionately more resources are devoted to getting things done, setting endless operational meetings, setting project and programme objectives, delivering services to clients, fulfilling quotas, chasing targets and determining quantitative indicators than to achieving deeper collective understanding of organisational and public sector

dynamics. The adoption and implementation of integrated systems to monitor and evaluate training impact have been a cross-cutting challenge and theme not only across the literature but also among many of those interviewed.

Where evaluation is an important means of improving learning opportunities, especially if accompanied by structured reflection at which shared mental models could be developed, the records of evaluation across all case institutions suggests that it is not perceived as such. At all three institutions, evaluations have been perceived as a negative and time-consuming activity and are not seen as benefiting the organisation. This points, amongst other things, to certain conclusions about the mode(s) of engagement between the MDI, recipients and the nature of their relationship. The case studies illustrate the consequences of evaluations that are overly concerned with the attainment of quantitative targets and the measurement of efficiency rather than the effectiveness of the organisation and its impact on the target group and society as a whole.

Quarterly reports provide indicators related to the numbers of applicants, trainees and participants, the costs and the number of courses/programmes offered. This overwhelming concern with the numbers leads an organisation, as is evident from this study, to become so focused on the quantitative aspects that quality is put seriously at risk.

4.5.5 Organisational Culture

With regard to organisational culture, all three cases illustrate that all MDIs require appropriate leadership. In this regard, and with reference to leadership in an African context, it has been mentioned that African countries have been plagued with the “destruction of institutions, oppression of the citizenry and sacrifice of good governance to the Machiavellian gods of expediency” (Moyo, 1992:xvii). Juxtaposed with this, the role of organisational leaders to encourage and facilitate learning in fostering team building is critical. Leaders must be broad-minded and open to experimentation and innovation. In order for this to happen, they must be competent, confident and self-assured.

Returning to the case studies, one of the major obstacles to effective team learning at the NSG in both the UK and South Africa were the silos and the barriers to sharing information about organisational and programme performance with lower level staff. The many waves and changes of leadership eventually led to deep divisions within the management and this prevailed throughout the entire organisation. One of the respondents from the former NSG in the UK who has chosen to remain anonymous noted in his e-mail written on the 13th of February 2017:

We have gone through so many models but neither of them were [sic] appropriate for the organisational culture or leadership at the time. We are used to working in silos which are managed and controlled through the various management levels. This is also how we relate to issues of learning and development and everyone is aware of that (Former NSG:UK Senior Consultant, 2017).

4.5.6 Organisational Competencies

Related to the issues around leadership and organisational culture, the related theme of competencies present in the organisation appeared as another key theme. Talking about this issue, an interviewee said:

The question is not so much whether learning takes place or not, but whether the learning that does occur is replicated across and to advantage the rest of the organisation ... in which case it is shared and becomes organisational knowledge, and whether performance improves as a result (Personal Interview, 2017).

While individuals in organisations are not able to avoid learning, the case studies indicate that learning takes place whether formally, i.e. in a structured manner, or informally. Whether learning moves from being individual to being organisational, however, depends on a number of factors, such as the structure of the organisation, competition operating between/amongst units and effective leadership. As to whether the learning which takes place materialises in improved performance and output is another matter altogether. Learning may take place, consciously or unconsciously, without contributing to better performance or performance might improve without any evidence that learning has taken place.

In analysing the three country cases and their respective MDIs, it is apparent that the objectives of all the programmes are closely associated with the mandates under which they have been established and therefore with the heart of the organisation's structure and systems. At the CSL in the UK, the delivery was not an end in itself but an important step and realisation for the participant or trainee towards acquiring additional skills. Over the years, its previous configurations were characterised by high internal complexity and high potential for external hostility. Over the years, this forced them to adapt accordingly. This new direction and adaptive strategy inevitably forced the organisation to respond to changes in the external environment by mobilising a combination of existing skills, technology and resources to counter these extraneous factors.

The new strategy also witnessed a renewed interest in three key areas. Firstly, there was an emphasis on the promotion of the principles of management and leadership development which were in turn designed to encourage a new generation of public service leaders to be creative and innovative public sector managers. Secondly, senior managers were expected to encourage their subordinates to be engaged and caring public servants. Thirdly, there was a need to lead by example in promoting participatory management and teamwork.

With this renewed interest, there was an implied expectation that all public service managers would also have the necessary leadership skills and abilities, working together with interested actors within both the public service and the broader civil society to promote and deliver public services responsive to citizens and clients while, by so doing, enhancing the professional reputation of the public service itself.

While the adjustment of the CSL UK was prompted by external, environmental factors rather than the internal reflection and continuous learning, respondents believed that some learning did take place. Much of what happened transpired as a result of assessing the external environment and making the requisite adjustments. Hence, since the CSL UK was unable to influence its environment and, at the same time, was constrained to respond to changes in itself, it had very few options to consider other than to adapt accordingly.

Equally, with the NSG in South Africa, there were a number of challenges related to the structure and the operational model of the NSG as alluded to in the previous chapter. The key issues relate to the decision on whether to engage in collaborative (and strategic) partnerships. There are also unresolved issues on whether to continue to outsource the delivery of capacity development interventions to external trainers and institutions or to provide training which is to be delivered by in-house staff members of the NSG.

Creating optimal conditions for organisational learning involves the conscious involvement of staff in the organisation to embrace uncertainty and change rather than ignore it. This involves the ability to relinquish control or predictability so as to inspire the need for experimentation and innovation. Since every organisation is different, it is not easy to predict how different staff members will react.

Each of the three MDIs had trouble amongst their staff at some point, which, in turn, affected their respective operations. One perspective may be that of following the organisational flow and realities of the world and governance while the other may be to focus on the learning that the challenges present. These incidents and challenges have very often gone unreported due to the fact that organisations may not want to present a negative side of the organisation, yet it is these very experiences and challenges which are seen to inspire learning in both the staff and the organisation itself. It is also ironic that these learning experiences are not necessarily passed on to others. In the case of the CSL UK and also the NSG in South Africa, it was difficult to explain and pass on the learning to the new staff and employees who joined the respective institutions later. This situation may be attributed to political, social and economic issues present in the external environment.

4.6 A Normative Model of Governance, Management and Leadership Development

The foregoing analysis has culminated into an emerging and normative model which has been developed to be relevant to MDIs and their respective governments. Furthermore, as indicated in the previous sections, MDIs are instrumental in supporting their respective

country's development agendas and at the same time serve to enhance efficiency and effectiveness in performance across the public sector.

Given the need to respond to the emerging global issues of poverty, the declining economy, politics, environmental constraints and other concerns, public sector organisations across the world, and notably across the Commonwealth, are increasingly pressed to provide more innovative, efficient and effective service delivery. Several MDIs carry the mandate of meeting these challenges by equipping their respective governments to rise to the challenge as implementation partners.

There are various elements to be considered in adopting an appropriate model to ensure that MDIs are able to equip governments in becoming implementation partners. The Adaptive Leadership Organisation (ALO) of Learning Governance Model is such a model. It is important to state that the ALO model considers three levels of governance as instrumental and key to its approach and application. These are the external environment, internal governance mechanisms, and, finally, the role of independent audits. These are explained next.

4.6.1 The External (Macro) Environment

The external environment is influenced by factors outside an organisation and includes aspects such as legislation, socioeconomic circumstances, political undercurrents and entities such as government and key stakeholders. These exogenous forces impact on the implementation and monitoring of adequate financial controls as well as legal management and compliance controls. They also include external organisations, such as the ones responsible for setting professional standards and guidelines for various sectors and industries. Typically, in best practice institutions, the status and compliance of external corporate governance mechanisms are openly accessible and available to external stakeholders.

4.6.2 The Internal (Micro) Environment

The internal aspects pertaining to the functioning of the MDI relate to the internal controls of an institution. These controls should ideally serve as a yardstick to monitor the performance and progress of the organisation and to embark on remedial measures if and when it goes off track. In order to uphold the organisation's internal controls, they monitor the internal staff and systems and provide information to stakeholders. These systems include the establishment of well-crafted and robust policies, procedures, clear lines of reporting and the cultivation of a performance-oriented culture. In addition, these internal mechanisms include the timeous submission of management reports and accounts, independent internal audits, and the corporate governance structure of the governing council or board of directors.

4.6.3 Independent Audits

With corporate governance not only playing an important role in justifying the relevance of many institutions, but also the internal mechanisms of corporate governance may not necessarily be deemed as important in the public sector, given the clear reporting lines of command and authority, and are thus not implemented on a noticeable scale. Nevertheless, the principles of corporate governance should ideally be applied to MDIs in light of the many stakeholders with whom they interact.

It is therefore incumbent for heads of MDIs to make strategic decisions about how their staff will perform their functions while monitoring and evaluating their performance. This is central to the implementation of internal control mechanisms and part of the internal governance function. Likewise, if an MDI is given development assistance through a bilateral programme, it follows that there should be compliance with the development agency's terms of agreement – an external control mechanism. If the MDI collaborates with other similar MDIs through partnerships, it is expected that there may be external audits to assure reliance on the outputs and figures provided – another form of external control.

Thus, considering these external and internal governance issues as part of the model seeks to promote innovative and better training practices and the ideals of collaboration and continuous learning and evolution, which can then be utilised by MDIs. The combination of findings thus far provides support for the development of a normative model, the ALO Model of Learning Governance (hereafter referred to as the ALO model) as applicable to MDIs. It is argued that the ALO model illustrated in Figure 4.4 has emerged as an approach towards strengthening the governance function of the MDI and also providing a framework with regard to positioning it as a credible public sector institution.

The ALO model has the potential to promote best practice, cutting-edge public sector training and development initiatives. In addition, the ALO model will assist the respective governments with the aforementioned initiatives and in implementing administrative reform. In the same vein, the ALO model would be one that would ideally be relevant to the particular context within which an MDI exists, how the MDI relates to government as well as how the MDI relates to its stakeholders. Hence the ALO model considers how it may be applicable within the organisation as well as the external environment to meet the challenges of the twenty-first century.

Based on an analysis of the existing environmental circumstances with regard to problems, threats and opportunities for the organisation, top management sets the overall objectives. These are further broken down into manageable functional objectives to be pursued by functional specialists working through their own sequence of stages. Thus, the ALO model is meant to be both a mirror of and a contributor to the governance of an MDI, its strategic management and its capacity development processes. The following five basic assumptions underlie this model:

Assumption 1: The institution is capable;

Assumption 2: The organisational design is agile and adaptable;

Assumption 3: The services are relevant and add present and future value;

Assumption 4: The MDI models and is led by innovative leadership;

Assumption 5: The prevalent dominant culture adopted is a collaborative and learning culture.

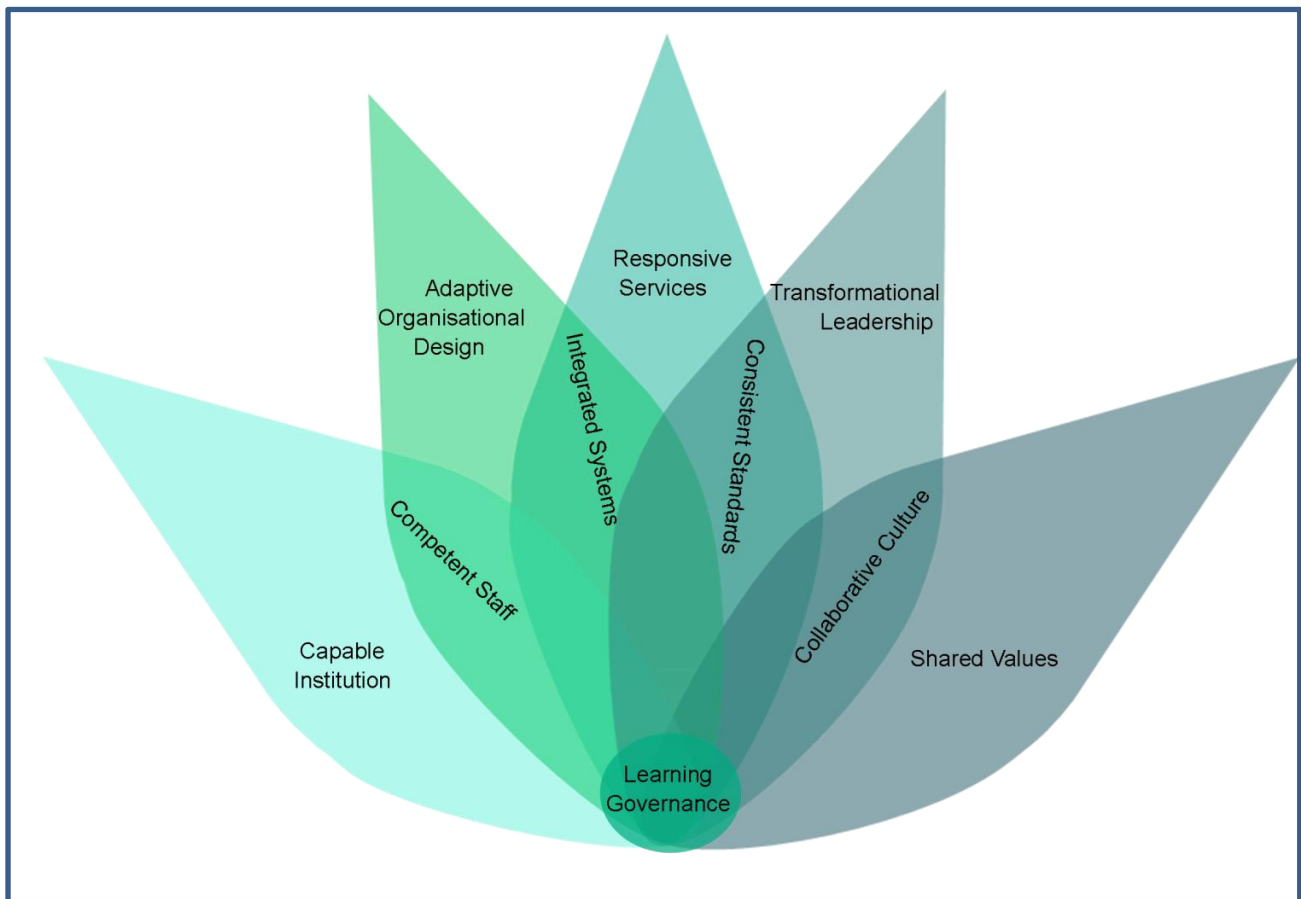


Figure 4.4: The Adaptive Leadership Organisational (ALO) Model of Learning Governance

Linking the five assumptions to the ALO model, a detailed description of each of the elements is provided next. The model consists of five intersecting leaves which correspond with each of the five assumptions. These leaves illustrate the link between training and the broader organisational strategy which implies that each of the elements of the MDI could be regarded as isolated by independent subsystems of the organisation but collectively contributing to each of the model's parts as one system.

4.6.1 Capable Institution

Starting with the first leaf on the left-hand side, the model works with the first assumption that the institution is a capable one. The issue of capability is closely related to the financing of public sector training institutions. As pointed out in the previous chapter, this is

closely related to a set of factors peculiar to the country context, although there are various variations and combinations depending on the country. This has been problematic since the development and growth of institutional capacity beg to be addressed through an appropriate funding model. In terms of the current trends in funding training and development, there needs to be a consideration of the key aspects.

With the world undergoing significant changes which impact on the delivery, the role of the government in funding capacity development is critical. Thus, whether training and development systems should be financed using market criteria or set out in a national policy (a public service model) should be determined by a range of indicators. In addition, training and development systems should have various funding arrangements. The aforementioned range of indicators may include the degree of autonomy, the mandate, public sector policies and practices, the choice of governance model and the outcome of training programmes. In many cases, an MDI is part of its respective government, functioning as a department such as the NSG in South Africa, a high-level office such as the CSL in the UK, or a ministry such as the LBSNAA in India. Since these are funded under specific votes or budget lines, government is under obligation to cover the demand in full.

In other cases where the MDI is a state-owned institution, government applies a funding formula and in doing so allocates a percentage of the budget to aggregate the supply of services. This method gives government more scope in its financing. As a result, the government's ideological stance towards capacity development, as well as how it values and supports the mandates of MDIs, will define the manner in which the funding model is determined.

Accordingly, like many other public sector institutions, MDIs are expected to fulfil their mandate by being more innovative and doing more with less. Part of the impetus to derive funding from government is how the MDI advances and supports the research and development agenda through innovation and the move towards delivering products of relevance and supporting policymaking through evidence-based research. This will, in turn, ensure that the MDI becomes a centre of collaborative dialogue through fostering

think tank fora and thought leadership discussions, which are, in turn, based on reliable, valid and credible research areas.

Finally, with regard to the sustainability of the institution, the financial position of an MDI may be determined by one of three key approaches. The first one, the soft funding approach, sees capacity development as an investment as opposed to an expenditure. With this approach, the funding of capacity development programmes is determined during the budget preparation phases when the requisite appropriations for training and development are ascertained. The second approach, the cultural approach, values capacity development as a cultural rather than an economic investment by government. While this perspective acknowledges the importance of capacity development and its link to economic investment, the underlying sociopolitical ills found across many public sectors call for training in areas of accountability, leadership and trust. Furthermore, training in the laying of a foundation which advances the adoption of shared values is also called for. The third and final approach to funding and MDIs is supported by the notion that capacity development should be seen as a long-term investment. This means that the investment made in the training and development of public sector officials will only be apparent after a long period.

Given all three approaches, and given that each MDI functions within their unique and respective country contexts, the adoption of one of these approaches or a combination of these approaches should support the mandate and strategy to be fully beneficial to the MDI.

4.6.2 Competent Staff

The “Capable Institution” leaf intersects with another leaf, namely “Agile Organisational Design”. The intersection highlights the premise that the staff of an MDI have the competencies to identify the inefficiencies and duplications, recognise the need for systems and procedures, and then, finally, prioritise and implement them.

As a starting point, the MDI should place a high premium on the recruitment and placement of the right staff with the right competencies, not only to design, develop and deliver capacity development and training interventions but also to ensure that the administrative and support staff are equally competent. Embedded in the philosophy of a learning organisation is that staff possess a willingness to learn and continue to acquire new skills. Therefore, while the recruitment of the right staff should remain a priority, there is an equal need to continue investing in and developing existing staff in terms of their knowledge, skills and attitudes. This is made possible through adopting the philosophy of people-centred development and growth throughout their career. The promotion of continuous professional learning and development enhances accountability and provides people to exercise the autonomy to be innovative and creative but also to achieve the bottom line. To this end, the use of technology can be used to support and provide innovative learning is valuable.

Equally, on board level, the engagement and involvement of board members and non-executive directors is important in view of the institution's capability as it cultivates a culture of trust and reciprocal expectations. These expectations are similarly set against mutually agreed on standards of performance.

4.6.3 Adaptable Organisational Design

The second assumption rests on the notion that the organisational design is both flexible and adaptable. In other words, the organisational design is a simple organisational structure fit for a purpose but adaptive enough to promote responsiveness. This could be understood to mean that the organisation and staff collectively understand and adopt flexible work processes, which includes the ability to raise alternative sources of revenue besides the organisation's government funding. Adaptability also includes the ability to work within but also around established internal processes to pursue emerging opportunities without being prescriptive about the outcome.

Although this organisational form may introduce slight variations of the matrix organisation and an explicit movement away from the functional form, it may prove to be problematic,

particularly with regard to issues of decentralised functions. This structure or organisational form becomes even more complex when services are offered as projects and reporting lines are blurred with people not knowing to whom to report and on what to report on (Peters & Waterman, 1982:307). As a result, the organisation heads for organisational paralysis (Peters & Waterman, 1982:307). Therefore, an ideal organisational form for an MDI would be one which promotes and encourages organisational learning. Such a design may be organised around service groupings, market segments, or geographic locations. These groupings should be simple but robust systems that are not only responsive and aligned with the strategy of the MDI but also draw on the functional organisational form. This organisational form should additionally have a lean staff complement, given that the larger an organisation's staff complement, the more complex it becomes to manage. With this organisational form, key principles of delegated decision-making should be commonly understood and implemented accordingly. The use of a project team structure could be adopted with the importance of documentation following a common format in terms of what has worked well, what can be learnt from the exercise or experiences and how future projects can be improved through the past learning.

This systematic collection and documentation of processes to collect, analyse, store and use information in terms of its relevance to enhance organisational performance is also key to adopting learning organisation principles. In practice, each service rendered would adopt a project team approach where documentation and project management skills are important. This would also include an approach where functional managers compile reports and send them to the executive level. At this level, the reports are discussed and suggestions are effected in the next implementation round.

Returning to the previous intersecting leaf which assumes that the staff are competent, the idea of establishing communities of practice or learning becomes critical. These communities of practice adopt the systematic training model in a simplistic form and the soft funding approach which sees training as an ongoing investment in the organisation. In the same vein, a mechanism for allocating resources between competing investment opportunities is necessary. The appropriate mechanism is strategic planning which

ensures that there is a high degree of commonality between the interests of the organisation and the needs of individuals who may or may not receive training. In fact, there is a considerable divergence between theory and practice. Decisions on training are not always made consciously, but rather evolve, with successive published reports indicating only questionable issues arising from training and the advancement of organisational objectives. For instance, the poor number of training applications could be addressed by elevating the profile of training and development in the public sector, with more emphasis on post-training evaluation and continuous dialogue with key stakeholders to deliver services that are not only responsible but also reliable.

4.6.4 Responsive Services

The third assumption in the model adopts the position that the services which an MDI renders are relevant and add present and future value. Starting with the main petal labelled “Responsive Services”, the principle is that the MDI remains true to its mandate. Hence, the three-pronged mandate of all MDIs should ideally do the following: advance the design, development and delivery of capacity development interventions through training, seminars, workshops or similar interactions; provide consultancy services; and advance action research to support the research and development (R&D) and drive the innovation agenda of the MDIs’ respective governments.

With regard to capacity development and learning programmes, MDIs should, as part of their philosophy, adopt a variety of experiential methods as opposed to the traditional lecture-based approach. The choice of curriculum and areas of focus for the MDIs should be directed at positioning MDIs as centres of excellence for high-level public administration skills development within five years.

Accordingly, with MDIs experiencing the pressure of running their respective systems and operations more efficiently and effectively amidst budget cuts, a significant rethink of how to do more with less is required. Across all three case MDIs, and in particular with the NSG in South Africa and the LBSNAA in India, there are projects and training groups which are run in relatively autonomous terms, leading to duplications around course development,

resource persons, internal administrative staff and delivery. While running efficiently, the interdepartmental and unit inefficiencies still appear since many MDIs have not yet worked out systems and processes for identifying, localising and addressing issues of duplication and unnecessary waste. The issue of having established systems is therefore important and is discussed in the next section.

4.6.5 Integrated Systems

The introduction of “Integrated Systems”, one of the two leaves intersecting with the “Responsive Services” leaf, allows for the planning and prioritisation, coordination of training interventions, budget management and improvement of the business processes. By introducing and integrating the systems, the MDI is able to advance systems thinking and in doing so share resources, eliminate unnecessary waste and duplication of efforts, manage both internal and external staff and resources and align the services with the MDI’s goals.

Given the paucity of information on appropriate models and best practices for MDIs in the literature, it is clear that for MDIs to reposition themselves, a challenging and painstaking process of change management is required. While there may be advantages to adopting the traditional bureaucratic but well-established systems of government, these may not necessarily be suitable for an MDI, given the need to be more responsive and relevant.

It is therefore sound to invest in the development of an integrated plan and strategy for the introduction of change suitable for the MDI and the context. Part of the plan would involve the acquisition of and investment in an integrated management information system which should include separate but interdependent components or modules addressing organisational development, human capital management, budgeting, procurement, training management, quality assurance, communication, marketing, facilities management, and the monitoring and evaluation of capacity development efforts.

4.6.6 Consistent standards

This part, which dovetails the leaf labelled “Responsive Services” with “Innovative Leadership” leaf, resonates with the need for an MDI to adopt and implement common training and development standards. With this understanding, organisation-wide adoption of common and shared standards addresses issues of inconsistency, provides predictability and strengthens existing systems and accountability. To this end, the report published by the United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs and the International Association of Schools and Institutes of Administration recommends eight criteria or standards which will facilitate the development of high-performance organisations (UNDESA, 2008:5-6). While all eight standards are important, there are two key criteria which lie at the heart of the adoption and application of the standards in their contribution to the ALO model. Briefly, they are, firstly, institutional criteria and criteria related to the programmes and or services of the MDI (UNDESA, 2008:7).

While the institutional criteria support the integrated systems explained in the previous section, the standards applicable to the programmes or services advocates that each MDI embraces the value of committing to public sector improvement. These criteria are further broken down into four aspects, namely the programme development, programme management, programme content and performance of the programmes (UNDESA, 2008:8). All four criteria when applied with consistency across the organisation will ensure that the programmes are not only measured against key standards which are in support of good governance practices as an outcome but are also measured against international standards.

4.6.7 Innovative Leadership

The fourth leaf of the ALO model is based on the notion that the MDI models and is driven by innovative leadership. It is a given that the public sector requires a combination of leadership, good management and public administration practices. As the public sector is not driven by profit, the business model of government is premised on the need for improved change and better service delivery. This need, in turn, demands higher calibre

public leadership qualities. These include leading by example and possessing the competencies of being able to communicate and motivate.

In order to lead with conviction and to be effective, the leadership of an MDI should not only understand but also operationalise its mission by setting the direction and providing its purpose. With this, the top leadership requirement for an MDI is that it should be able to support its staff and provide the requisite tools, information, knowledge and performance standards required by its staff to enable them to do their jobs. These should be based on consistent standards, which form the intersecting leaves between “Innovative Leadership” and “Responsive Services”, as required for the staff of the MDI to foster trust in the leader as they ensure predictability, consistency and reliability of decisions. Equally, performing against set standards allows for consistent improvement, thus pacing the MDI to match the benchmarks of other local and international best practice institutions in areas of reform, public sector governance and management and leadership development.

Finally, in order to cultivate innovative leadership traits not just for the MDI but also across the public sector, the enhancement of a service ethos, commitment to the public together with the openness to embrace new ideas and a future-thinking orientation is required. Through the MDIs’ flagship programmes which focus on the development of leadership competencies, the emphasis of innovative leadership of MDIs will be on serving as a catalyst for the transformation of the public sector for the future and on being trendsetters.

4.6.8 Shared Values

The intersection between “Innovative Leadership” and “Collaborative Culture” denotes a set of shared values or principles which both internal staff and key stakeholders embrace. This is often a stumbling block, given that there are a multitude of expectations across all stakeholder groups, each underpinned by their respective set of values. Establishing shared and common values may take considerable time and energy which should, despite being time-consuming, be set aside by the MDI. Figure 4.5

illustrates this graphically by highlighting the core elements which support service delivery improvement premised on shared values.

Therefore, commitment to advancing the public interest and good governance manifests in defining shared values. In this regard, there should be a principal commitment to achieve progress with regard to a country's developmental priorities. Equally, part of the value set should include that change does not happen overnight and that there is a time frame which is necessary to effect deep-rooted and systemic change. Hence, the importance of ensuring that a sound and robust monitoring evaluation system is in place to assess continuous improvement, measurement of milestone achievements and progress. Since the focus of MDIs should be on establishing and operating as centres of excellence, it should also be recognised that skills development in each country is necessarily influenced by the country's context and by a diversity of needs which should be accommodated.

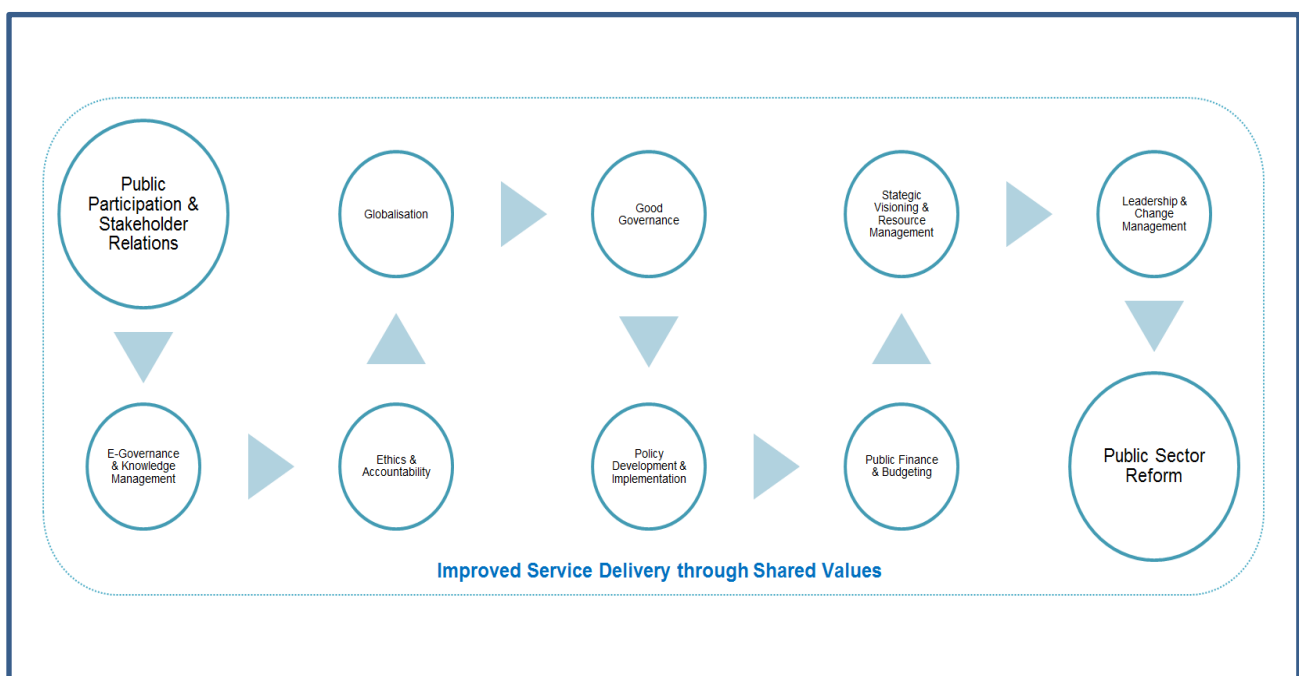


Figure 4.5: Core elements supporting the improvement of service delivery through shared values

To this end, the central focus under this leaf in the ALO model will be for MDIs to collaborate across training and development networks. These networks which comprise

higher education institutions, faculties of public administration and governance, training and development professionals, consultants and learning facilitators should collectively support schools of government and, in particular, African MDIs to facilitate the common core elements and themes as illustrated in Figure 4.5.

4.6.9 Collaborative Culture

The fifth and final assumption of the ALO model is that the prevalent dominant culture adopted is a collaborative and learning culture. This leaf, intersecting with the “Innovative Leadership” leaf, assumes that, given the shared values embraced by all stakeholders, the principle of fostering collaboration and building partnerships becomes paramount in advancing a learning governance culture.

With this, the dominant culture requires MDI staff to be comfortable with uncertainty and to conquer the fear of the unknown. One of the key competencies indicated with regard to the staff is the requirement to be adaptable and to participate. Coupled with these competencies is the need for the institution or MDI to remain aware of the political, economic, social, technological, legal and environmental forces and how they influence and impact operations.

With the foregoing describing and explaining the leaves of the ALO model, the final component, i.e. the central stem or circle, holding the intersecting leaves together at the base of the model, advocates for a learning governance philosophy, given that all the leaves converge at this central point and hold the model together. This is explained next.

4.6.10 Learning Governance

The previous sections provided a description of the ALO model along with an analysis of some the issues and challenges taken from the case institutions and literature. The model illustrates that while MDIs are slowly but gradually moving towards repositioning themselves within their respective contexts and realities to fulfil their mandates, there are some interesting developments.

The first is the *raison d'être* or reason for an MDI's existence. Across all three Commonwealth countries, the case institutions have been created under their respective offices (CSL under the Cabinet Office, Home Ministry) and departments (Department of Public Services and Administration) while still being part of the public sector themselves. With this, their operations are very clear and are intended to fulfil the umbrella objectives of providing training and consultancy services and embarking on action research to support the socio-economic policy development agenda.

The second interesting development is that many schools of government or MDIs have started developing and adopting common frameworks for capacity development across the public sectors they serve. These include the development and implementation of public service training policies, competency frameworks and common standards for curriculum development and training outcomes (UNDESA, 2008:12). These frameworks of capacities, service design and delivery, organisational functioning and development, and leadership within such organisations are very much informed by a common philosophy and tradition derived from New Public Management (Osborn & Gaebler, 1992:43).

Given the similarities in operational programme designs and expected outcomes in the schools of thought of such training initiatives, MDIs should ideally begin collaborating to further their efforts through the sharing of capacity and organisational resources, the promotion of common undertakings, the development of electronic/distance education, and the elaboration of best practices in training and development work. By doing this, a learning governance approach would be cultivated and begin to develop, adapt and grow.

The advancement of the ALO model with learning governance at its core implies that MDIs should collaborate and ideally become communities of practice and centres of excellence, benefiting all MDIs individually within their unique country contexts and collectively as conduits of a learning society. To quote one of the Deloitte reports (2015), by instituting effective learning governance, it is possible to:

“Align L&D with strategy; improve the prioritisation of initiatives and resources; improve the learning function while retaining indispensable talent and essential

employee development programs that deliver real business value; advance the maturity of the learning function; move L&D from an administrative function to a valued, strategic partner in the business; and help prioritise the right learning programs to build the workforce skills necessary to support business growth and reduce risk” (Deloitte, 2015:2).

The ALO Model of Learning Governance ideally promotes the importance and need for MDIs to collaborate and own mutual identities. It further promotes the commonalities MDIs have on an institutional, intellectual and professional level.

4.7 Summary

Although it is difficult to generalise the outcomes of the analysis of these case studies, the intention is to replicate the design across institution. Similarly, through the second Delphi round, the key elements comprising the ALO Model of Learning Governance have been verified and validated by the identified key respondents of the various institutions. None of them really introduced an ideal model or model of best practice for MDIs. This chapter accordingly indicates that there are several key lessons which can be applied to the development of an ideal model for adoption by MDIs.

The Adaptive Leadership and Organisational (ALO) Learning Governance Model has emerged as an outcome of the case discussions and proposes an approach to manage the many elements considered to be central to the success of MDIs. The next chapter discusses the Namibian case and in particular considers the Namibia Institute of Public Administration and Management (NIPAM).

Chapter 5: The Namibian Case

“The old model has been based on [the] mistaken assumption ... that it is possible simply to ignore existing capacities in developing countries and replace them with knowledge and systems produced elsewhere – a form of development as displacement, rather than development as transformation” (Capacity for Development: New Solutions to Old Problems).

5.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter, an analysis of the three case institutions was conducted and qualified by the identified key respondents of the various institutions through two Delphi consultation rounds. The purpose of the exercise was to examine the various contexts related to the policy and legal framework and the institutionalisation of governance, management and leadership development across the three commonwealth countries. The chapter also provided an overview of the various capacity development models to add depth to the analysis. In doing so, an emerging normative model entitled the Adaptive Leadership and Organisational (ALO) Model of Learning Governance emerged.

The focus of this chapter falls on the Namibian case and, in particular, the Namibia Institute of Public Administration and Management (NIPAM), its role and value in transforming the public service, and its current setup in terms of the categories which were utilised to document the three case MDIs in chapter three.

5.2 Chapter Objectives and Outline

The objective of this chapter is to describe the current Namibian reality and institutional setup. In addition, the chapter seeks to determine the requirements for providing capacity development in the areas of governance, management and leadership development can best be met. This is done as a basis for validating whether continued research in the context of public service reform is warranted.

The chapter begins by introducing Namibia and provides an overview of its strengths and weaknesses in terms of the current political, economic, social, technological and legal environment, which is both complex and dynamic. This information is used to describe the current challenges, legislation, policies, institutionalisation and implementation of efficient, effective and sustainable governance and management and leadership development in the Namibian public sector. An overview of the technical, vocational and education and training environment is provided before introducing the role players in public sector training and development. The case of the NIPAM, given its evolution and growth over the past six years, is described, providing insights into its governance, institutional setup, strategy, systems, culture and competencies. The chapter therefore aims at providing sufficient background before analysing it according to the ALO Model of Learning Governance introduced in chapter four.

5.3 Context

The Republic of Namibia covers a geographical area of 824,300 square kilometres. It borders Angola to the north, South Africa to the south, Botswana to the east, the Atlantic Ocean to the west and Zambia to the northeast. Namibia is constituted as a “sovereign, secular, democratic and unitary state” (Republic of Namibia, 1997:1). Namibia is also a stable multiparty democracy, having achieved independence in 1990.

Namibia is divided into 14 regions, namely the Oshikoto, Oshana, Ohangwena, Omusati, Otjozondjupa, Kunene, Kavango East, Kavango West, Zambezi, Omaheke, Khomas, Erongo, Hardap and Karas Region (Republic of Namibia, 2002:55). Geographically, the country is arid with sparse rainfall. There are eleven local languages with English as the official language of business. Namibia has a population of two million which is comprised of approximately 49% males and 51% females and a literacy rate of 83% in the population aged 15 years and older (National Planning Commission, 2006:13). The 2003/2004 Namibia Household Income and Expenditure Survey (NHIES) found that on average, each household consists of 5 people with rural households larger than urban households with 5.4 and 4.2 people per household respectively (National Planning Commission, 2006:13).

Although it is classified as a middle-income country, the Gini coefficient of 0.597 marks it as one of the most unequal societies in the world (World Bank, 2016:4). According to the International Monetary Fund (IMF), economic growth in Namibia is more dynamic than in South Africa, though much slower than in Angola, Botswana or Zambia (IMF, 2016:6). The World Economic Forum ranks Namibia 85 of the 140 countries in terms of the 2016/17 Global Competitiveness Index. The rank of 39 and a score of 4.47 on the index reveals Namibia's strengths to be its institutions, with infrastructure and macroeconomic development following closely. In contrast, however, its greatest weaknesses are revealed to be higher education and training as well as the social sector. The social sector ranking of 121 and score of 4.56 are positively significant, particularly in health and the education sector (World Economic Forum, 2016:47).

It has been suggested that historically most academic work on governance in Namibia is firmly grounded in, and linked to, the normative frameworks adopted by the UN since its establishment after Second World War with Namibia being a signatory to most international conventions and agreements. Through these, the country continues to provide principal commitment in upholding the universal values and principles of good governance (Melber, 2003:440). Comparatively, Namibia's indicators on good governance are noteworthy, particularly in terms of its ranking by the World Press Freedom Index. Of the 140 countries, Namibia remains number one in Africa and 17 in the world, affording the country a score of 77 out of 100, where 100 indicates a score of most free (Freedom House, 2017). Similarly, on the Mo Ibrahim Index of African Governance, Namibia ranks 5th out of the 54 countries, scoring 76.1 in the areas of participation and human rights and receiving an equivalent score of 76.1 on safety and rule of law (Mo Ibrahim Foundation, 2016:18).

The Corruption Perception Index reported by Transparency International (TI) assigns Namibia a score of 52 points out of 100 in 2016. There was a prominent increase from 149 countries in 2015 to 176 countries in 2016, illustrating that the country has moved up 10 places to its ranking as number 53 in the world (Transparency International, 2016:3). There are a number of aspects which play an important role in how corruption is perceived with the key observations attributed to the prevailing Namibian political culture. This

political culture has been described to work against openness and accountability, broad consultation and constructive criticism, collaboration, participatory decision-making and decentralisation – all of which could contribute considerably towards an environment of responsible and good governance within the public sector (Sherbourne, 2010:331).

In further describing political culture, there are various views which build on the description of the Namibian political culture. There are authors who contend that although

... the Namibian society shows signs of democracy taking root, it cannot be considered a democratic society. The emerging political culture is neither a civic nor an integrated culture. It contains the legacies of colonial rule and a violent liberation struggle. Neither of these forces was democratic, and they tore Namibia's social fabric apart. These cleavages, especially the intense partisan divide, will continue to shape the country's political culture (Keulder et al., 2000:238).

This is confirmed by another author who indicates that

... for sixteen years, a negative, despicable political culture of denigrating and demonizing the political opposition institutions such as the NBC and the Electoral Commission, which were supposed to serve the nation in a neutral and unbiased fashion, but have been turned into party political tools at the disposal of the ruling Party [existed]. This has led to a serious undermining of the credibility of these bodies and others. The balanced relationship between the Executive, the Legislature and the Judiciary has been often tempered with through casting aspersions, political attacks by senior government officials and through unbalanced allocation of public resources (Melber, 2003:19).

In line with the dominant thinking on political culture, it is a reasonable argument that the future of democracy lies not only in the hands of the ruling elites, but also in the hands of ordinary citizens (Du Pisani, 2006:45; Angula, 2006:12). While various authors maintain that there are various definitions and manifestations of political culture, there is very little consensus on what it constitutes (Keulder et al., 2000:23; Fournier, 1998 in Inglehart, 1997:391). According to Rosenbaum (1975), there are references to various typologies of

political culture of which there are three key elements, namely orientation towards government structures, orientation towards other role players in the political system, and, finally, orientation towards one's own political competence and activity (Rosenbaum, 1975:6-7).

Nonetheless, although these constructs on political culture may have a bearing on this study, their coverage is well beyond the scope of this dissertation. Their mention in this regard is to support the analysis of the Namibian case and how Namibia's political culture determines the extent to which Namibians are generally supportive of the principles and the ideals of democracy and good governance. Furthermore, the aforementioned constructs are outlined to confirm the extent that there are both opportunities and challenges in terms of capacity development.

5.3.1 Overview of the Namibian Public Sector

The essential features of the Namibian Public Sector environment can be traced back to Namibia's historical underpinnings. Its prevailing philosophy has been adopted from the South African Administration principles, which emphasise the traditional principles of the professional public service. There are a number of features which are accepted as atypical of the traditional public service such as lifetime occupation, commensurate salary, loyalty, political neutrality and moderation, dedication to public service, and subjection to specific rules and disciplinary regulations.

The size of the total workforce of the Namibian public sector is estimated at 120 000 employees, making it the biggest employer, and comprises the central and local governments, together with the associated agencies of the State, including parastatals (Public Service Commission, 2014:12). The public sector plays a major role in the Namibian economy due to the services it provides. These services include general administration, education, health, infrastructure, law and order.

The Public Service and specifically public servants are defined as persons who are employed permanently or temporarily on a full-time or part-time basis or under a special

contract or under any contract of employment contemplated in section 34(1)(a) of the Public Service Act, 1995 (Act 13 of 1995). Members of the Namibian defence, police and correctional service are excluded in this definition. An overview of the various entities comprising the public sector is provided next.

5.3.2 Central Government

Before commencing with a description of central government, it is necessary to point out that the Namibian Constitution advocates for the clear separation of powers amongst the three branches of government or state organs which are the Executive, the Legislature and the Judiciary. The Cabinet resorts under the Executive branch. The cabinet consists of the president, vice president, prime minister, deputy prime minister and ministers who are appointed by the president. Collectively, Cabinet is responsible for implementing policies, which are guided by the constitution and acts of Parliament (Republic of Namibia, 2002:23).

Thus, there are three offices of higher authority (the Office of the President, the Office of the Prime Minister and the Office of the Judiciary), 23 Ministries and eight Agencies which constitute the central government. The prime minister, in terms of the Namibian Constitution, is directly responsible for the management of the public service. This stems from the fact that the prime minister is the coordinator of the work of the cabinet and accountable for government business in parliament. This includes the formulation and implementation of policies affecting the mobilisation, development, utilisation and motivation of the public service. It is correspondingly incumbent on ministers to supervise their respective functional activities in their ministries and account to the National Assembly as well as to the general public. Policy implementation and service delivery capacity are largely determined by how ministers (as political heads) relate to permanent secretaries (as administrative heads).

The resources devoted to executing the work of the public service are substantial, both in terms of the proportion of GDP devoted to public expenditures and in terms of the number of public servants in proportion to the total population. Namibia's ratio of one public servant

per 24 Namibians makes it proportionally one of the largest public administrations in the developing world. Therefore, improving the public service must depend on making it more effective and efficient, rather than giving it an even larger share of national resources.

5.3.3 Regional Councils and Local Authorities

Moving on from central government to subnational government, there are 14 Regions which are established through Chapter 12, Article 102, of the Constitution (Republic of Namibia, 2002:55). Regional Councils (RCs) are responsible for planning the development of their respective regions for which they have been established, providing advice to the line Minister on regional development concerns, and assisting the Local Authorities (LAs) situated within the region. There are 57 LAs which are established in terms of both Regional Councils Act and Local Authorities Acts of 1992 include municipalities, town councils and village councils (Republic of Namibia, 1992a; Republic of Namibia, 1992b).

The councillors of these LAs are elected by the community to take care of the community matters. A common feature of Regional and Local Authority Councils is that they both have substantial fiscal powers and have to adhere to established procedures, systems and regulations in the day-to-day handling of financial matters. Taxes and levies may be collected in terms of Section 30 and 33 of the Local Authorities Act, 1992 (Act 23 of 1992) and the Regional Councils Act, 1992 (Act 22 of 1992) respectively. Furthermore, all Regional and Local Authorities have the power to develop legislation and policies regarding their own affairs as long as these do not conflict with the Constitutional principles and guidelines (Republic of Namibia, 1992a; Republic of Namibia, 1992b).

Despite possessing the necessary powers to develop the requisite regulations, the quality, however, of governance and service delivery at regional and local government is often featured negatively. The conventional media often features articles on corruption and irregularities at local and regional level with very few proposed solutions. Under these circumstances, the sector has been home to frequent cases of suspensions of chief regional officers (CROs), chief executive officers (CEOs) and the principal accounting

officers by the councillors. Subnational authorities have been criticised by researchers as not being very active in improving their own governance systems and levels of accountability. This situation often leads to a dependency complex. It continues to cultivate a culture of learnt helplessness and poor accountability with many reverting to the Ministry of Urban and Rural Development for answers, solutions and sometimes bailouts (Tjirera et al., 2012:3). Unfortunately, this impacts on issues pertaining to decentralisation of related service delivery at regional and local government level.

The decentralisation policy was adopted by Cabinet in 1996 and was eventually launched as a Decentralisation Programme for Namibia in March 1998. The policy was later enacted as the Decentralisation Enabling Act, Act 33 of 2000. Nearly two decades later, and despite much groundwork being undertaken, very few functions of central government have been decentralised in the manner envisaged by the Act. The fate of decentralisation is often determined by political culture: “Political culture can impede decentralisation, particularly when it values the idea of final authority – whether for certain governmental institutions or for the ‘nation’ as such” (Tjirera et al., 2012:6).

5.3.4 Public Enterprises

Public enterprises (PEs), parastatals or state-owned enterprises (SOEs) are defined as companies in which government controls a shareholding of more than 50 percent and has in many instances full ownership with government maintaining control of the composition of the board of directors (Sherbourne, 2010:318). These bodies have been established to provide a range of services from procurement, infrastructure development, employment creation institutions, education and training, art and culture, media, regulatory bodies and banks. They are expected to play a key role in stimulating and promoting the economy but, as one researcher has noted, it has been very difficult to assess their performance and contribution despite there being some consistently good performers (Sherbourne, 2010:34).

In general, the perception towards PEs is negative with regard to the key perceptions around poor leadership and management practices, administrative corruption and lack of

accountability coupled with unnecessary political interference (Links & Haimbodi, 2011:14). Unfortunately, this impacts on, and undermines, the ability of a PE to recruit, manage and operate according to broadly accepted standards of corporate governance. As one Namibian Economist has put it,

The subsequent mushrooming of SOEs has led to the development of a large new sector of the economy which has played an important role in training black Namibian managerial and business talent free from the confines of government salary scales while allowing government to intervene directly in the economy (Sherbourne, 2010: 319).

On the oversight of PEs, the Ministry of Public Enterprises (MPE) is responsible for spearheading the restructuring of public enterprises. A Corporate Governance Framework for SOEs and parastatals was launched in 2010 to provide principles and guidelines aimed at improving accountability, transparency, efficiency and effectiveness in the management of public enterprises. However, in spite of this institutional framework, the restructuring exercise has experienced little progress (Jooste, 2016:1). The parastatal sector remains riddled with viability challenges with current scenarios currently questioning the bailout of the transport and infrastructure development parastatals. Many public enterprise boards remain poorly constituted in terms of membership, autonomy and capitalisation (Links & Haimbodi, 2011:10).

Having described the various role players in the public sector and some of the key challenges the sector is experiencing, it may be necessary to introduce how government is addressing these challenges. The long-term and short-term national development framework and strategy follows to provide additional context in understanding the Namibian public sector.

5.4 The Governance and Alignment of National Development to Management and Leadership Development

It is difficult to document the Namibian case without making reference to the national Vision and the macroeconomic development framework. As indicated in chapter four, the

alignment of an MDI's governance, institutional setup and vision should be well articulated in relation to its key stakeholders which comprise mainly the public sector. The Namibian public sector, as described in the foregoing sections, consists of a variety of stakeholders. Part of good corporate and responsible governance practices entails the deliberate involvement of an institution with its key stakeholder groups to ensure that the delivery of services are relevant to and resonate with the needs it was established to address (Trakman, 2008:43).

Thus, since the focus of this study is on the governance, management and leadership aspects of public sector officials, it is useful to provide a brief explanation of the roles of various public sector bodies that are responsible for leading various administrative services – from maintaining oversight to ensuring that policies are implemented at all sectors of government. For instance, the National Planning Commission (NPC) within the Office of the President is responsible for the coordination and oversight of national development. In order to achieve the national Vision, the availability of qualified and competent human capital across the public sector is necessary to advance and drive the national development agenda.

As a case in point, public sector officials are required to manage issues related to personnel or human capital matters and administration, financial affairs, various typical bureaucratic tasks and also administrative processing of different public services. With the public sector being quite large and comprising approximately 120 000 staff members, the effective utilisation of staff and their competencies to carry out their functions effectively and efficiently has a strong impact on the administrative culture of the Namibian public administrative system. This is further linked to the question about whether the Namibian public sector has the requisite competencies to achieve the high-level objectives as articulated in the national development aspirations (Republic of Namibia, 2012:13).

On the other hand, while the NPC is the main custodian of Vision 2030 and the national development plans, the issue of national capacity development is well vested in the mandate of the various stakeholders and role players within the Technical, Vocational Education and Training (TVET) sector. While the Ministry of Higher Education, Training

and Innovation, the Namibia Qualification Authority (NQA) and the Namibia Training Authority (NTA) will be discussed in relation to their role in advancing national development broadly, there are also a number of key stakeholders and role players who play a major role in the capacity development of the public sector. Hence, the next section briefly describes the interrelationships and interdependencies of the Office of the Prime Minister (OPM), the Public Service Commission (PSC), the Ministry of International Relations (MIRCO), the Ministry of Finance and the Ministry of Urban and Rural Development (MURD). In addition, their role in developing the competencies within the public sector is discussed. At an individual level, the section concludes with highlighting the role of accounting officers to support the capacity development within the public sector.

5.4.1 Vision 2030

Namibia's long-term vision, Vision 2030 provides the backdrop for the country's national developmental agenda. The key objective under the vision is to advance an integrated, flexible, unified and high-calibre education and training system in order to become a "prosperous and industrialised nation, developed by her human resources, enjoying peace, harmony and political stability by 2030" (National Planning Commission, 2004:15). In addition, the key strategy of Vision 2030 is to pursue rapid economic growth, twinned with equitable social development and aimed at transforming Namibia into a knowledge-based economy. Part of the strategy assumes that the capacity development of human resources is available to achieve the vision through well-articulated five-year National Development Plans (NDPs) (National Planning Commission, 2004:8-9).

5.4.2 National Development Plans

In order to articulate and operationalise Namibia's shared vision, the country has, since independence in 1990, launched and completed four NDPs. Apart from the implementation of the NDPs, an accelerated plan entitled the Harambee Prosperity Plan (HPP) was launched by the President during his second state of the Nation address on 5 April 2016. The HPP prioritises a number of activities in terms of key lagging areas by supplementing the efforts of the NDP4 while providing the context and priorities for the

next national plan (Geingob, 2016:3). With this, the Fifth National Development Plan (NDP5) which was launched on 31 May 2017 is the fifth of a total of seven plans developed to achieve Vision 2030 and will be implemented during the financial years 2017/18 until 2021/22 (National Planning Commission, 2017:13).

The NDP5 provides for the requisite budgetary outlays which are specifically provided to enhance the social sectors of education and training. In addition, NDP5 highlights the importance of technical, vocational education and training (TVET) as the backbone of economic development (Geingob, 2017:2). Government through the HPP and NDP5 is expected to promote the status of TVET through a number of activities such as the expansion of training facilities, improved skills development, and the promotion of research and collaboration with other key partners (National Planning Commission, 2017:59). The initiatives in NDP5 augment the National Human Resources Plan (NHRP) which is discussed in the next part.

5.4.3 National Human Resources Plan

The issue of Namibia's skills imbalances has been well documented (IPPR, 2011:1; National Planning Commission, 2011:23; National Planning Commission, 2012:12). For Namibia to become industrialised, the skills shortages across all sectors of the economy should be addressed. The NHRP was launched under the National Planning Commission, which falls under the Office of the President, in October 2012. The plan seeks to provide the national context of human resources, the policy framework and implementation modalities for sustainable human resources planning and development. Furthermore, the NHRP outlines five key areas in order to address five main categories, namely strengthened institutions and policy development, improved data management (and quality) to support information dissemination, improved efficiency and effectiveness of the education and training system, prioritised occupations for human resources planning, and reduction of unemployment and enhanced employability skills (Republic of Namibia, 2012:viii).

Furthermore, in order to support economic growth, significant investments have been made in the education system through universal free primary and secondary education as well as in vocational and entrepreneurship training. Nevertheless, in terms of capacity development there are still a number of challenges in the TVET domain given that there is poor absorptive capacity and direct value-addition to knowledge creation (Republic of Namibia, 2012:viii).

5.4.4 Technical, Vocational Education and Training in Namibia

Technical, Vocational Education and Training (TVET) is steadily emerging as a global front runner in driving national development agendas and features prominently in the strategic and operational priorities of regional economic communities and multilateral organisations. These include the AU, the International Labour Organisation (ILO) and the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO). The rationale of prioritising and investing in TVET is strong and convincing and stems from the recognition of TVET as a rich source of skills, knowledge and technology required to drive productivity in knowledge-based and transitional societies for the twenty-first century (UNESCO, 2016:10).

Technical, Vocational Education and Training is further accorded a high premium because of its potential to equip citizens with employability and work-readiness skills as well as its potential to deal with the global challenges of youth unemployment. Productivity is the basis for sustained economic growth and wealth accumulation (World Economic Forum, 2016:47). For Namibia to improve its global competitiveness, it is important that Namibians have the required technical and vocational skills. With the lack of adequate skills and the availability of training institutions as major obstacles to capacity development, it is important for government to establish an efficient, effective and sustainable TVET system in Namibia which will ensure access, equity and quality.

Currently, the Namibian TVET environment is regulated by a number of legislative framework, policies and related policy regulations. These are, starting with the National

Qualifications Authority (NQA) Act (No 29 of 1996); the Higher Education Act (No 26 of 2003); the Vocational Education and Training (VET) policy (2005) which provides the overall framework for the future of VET in Namibia; the Vocational Education and Training Act (Act 1, 2008) which establishes the Namibia Training Authority (NTA) and has been established to regulate and transform VET in Namibia; and finally, the National Human Resources Development Plan 2010-2025.

While this is a comprehensive and exhaustive set of legislation and framework documents, the latest report undertaken by the UNESCO on TVET indicated that Namibia's education and training system is highly fragmented across different providers. In addition, the report indicated that the absence of a coordinated and consistent network, poor linkages and absence of coordination negatively affects the quality, relevance and quantity of the Namibian labour market (UNESCO, 2016:13). To illustrate this disconnect, the roles of the Ministry of Higher Education, Training and Innovation, the National Qualifications Authority (NQA) and the Namibia Training Authority (NTA) are discussed next.

The Ministry of Higher Education, Training and Innovation derives its mandate from the Higher Education Act (No 26 of 2003) through which the National Council for Higher Education (NCHE) was established. Furthermore, the gazetted Regulations for the Registration of Private Higher Education Institutions (2009), the Education and Training Sector Improvement Programme (ETSIP) (2007) on the improvement of the effectiveness and productivity of academic staff at the public higher education institutions (HEIs) and the Funding Framework (2013) for fair and transparent funding to public higher education institutions provide the legal framework for the Ministry's operations. The operations entail overseeing the provision of higher education, ensuring the relevance of educational programmes to the requirements of the citizenry and advancing the educational capabilities of individuals across Namibia. Furthermore, the Ministry is also mandated to oversee, drive and promote research and innovation to position Namibia and enhance its competitiveness through value-added services and products.

The Quality Assurance System for Higher Education in Namibia was approved by Cabinet in 2011. All training, including invitations to study abroad, which leads to a formal

qualification is administered by the Ministry of Higher Education, Training and Innovation. The National Qualifications Authority (NQA) Act (No 29 of 1996) establishes the NQA which is responsible for implementing the regulations for the accreditation of persons, institutions or organisations, setting up the national qualifications framework for Namibia and the evaluation of qualifications according to regulations. The NQA occupies the status of a state-owned enterprise but through its governance structures reports to the Ministry of Higher Education, Training and Innovation.

The Namibia Training Authority (NTA) is the custodian of the Vocational Education and Training (VET) policy launched in 2005. The policy provides the overall framework for positioning VET in Namibia and considering the quality of training and the value of output results. By the same token, the Vocational Education and Training Act (Act 1, 2008) establishes the NTA to regulate and transform VET in Namibia.

There are two publically owned institutions of higher learning in Namibia, namely the University of Science and Technology (NUST) and the University of Namibia (UNAM). These two institutions provide higher education, training programmes and are involved in providing academic research to various public sector institutions. Both higher education institutions offer certificates, diplomas and degrees up to doctoral level. Recent developments have seen collaboratively developed management development programmes, which are registered on the national qualifications framework, accredited and associated with South African and International Institutions.

5.4.5 Role players in public sector training and development

In light of the previous section illustrating the poor networking and coordination efforts across service providers, the management of capacity development for the public sector is even more challenging. This may be exacerbated by the various role players within the public sector, whose main objective is to ensure that the governance of the Namibian public sector institutions outlined in many of the national development frameworks supports the three pillars of the NDP5 and the NHRP. For this study, seven key role players are singled out and are described next, starting with the National Planning Commission (NPC).

To operationalise these high-level plans and broadly the developmental aspirations of Namibia, the National Planning Commission (NPC) is responsible for ensuring that the NHRP 2010-2025 is implemented nationally. This also involves the coordination of capacity development across the public sector to ensure the following: the preservation of peace, security and rule of law; the promotion of accountability and transparency; and, finally, the improvement of public service performance and service delivery. With regard to public service performance and service delivery, the Namibian government seeks to encourage a service mentality or work ethic. This is done through warranting the availability of public service information to the public and building the capacity of the public sector from O/M/As, RCs, LAs and PEs (National Planning Commission, 2017:4).

It is only through the adoption of a high-standard work ethic and a culture of service delivery that the Namibian public sector, in the interest of advancing decentralisation and improved service delivery in education and training, can create stronger planning and administration systems. The processes of good public governance, including public sector research, monitoring and evaluation, policymaking, systems development and management, all require considerable improvement. The ongoing process of decentralisation within government has the potential to greatly improve service delivery to citizens, but decentralised governance is skills intensive, requiring highly skilled officials at all levels of government. The NDP4 emphasised that in government, as in the economy as a whole, there is a serious skills shortfall:

Sadly, public sector weaknesses in respect of delivering services often affect the most vulnerable in our society. This weak delivery capacity stems from a number of factors, but the severe deficit of skills at critical management levels in the State apparatus is the most telling (National Planning Commission, 2012a:49).

There are a number of specific human resources challenges in this regard. Effective, relevant and quality capacity development is part of the solution. However, as emphasised by NDP4, there is also a need for the “introduction and enforcement of performance management across all levels and functions of Government” and an inculcation of a “culture of performance management”. Yet, the performance management system may be

difficult to manage, which calls for public sector officials to possess the requisite management and leadership competencies (Republic of Namibia, 2012:5).

The prime minister is at the head of the public service and has oversight responsibility and is accountability for a number of key services and functions. These include the efficient and effective administration of the public service, policy dialogue and analysis, human capital planning, and management and leadership development. In order to address the shortfalls in view of the performance challenges in the public sector, the Office of the Prime Minister (OPM) performs these functions by coordinating with other O/M/As through many of its departments. As the central agent tasked with overseeing capacity development of the public service, the Department of Public Service Management is regarded as a key change agent in the development and transformation of the public sector but also in the enhancement of the public sector's performance.

To this end, the Human Resources Development Policy (HRDP) for Accelerated Performance in the Public Service of Namibia was launched and developed by the OPM in 2014. Invitations to training courses, study visits, and capacity development as a whole which does not lead to a formal qualification is coordinated by the Directorate: Human Resources Planning and Development (DHRPD). At a departmental level, the implementation, monitoring and evaluation of the HRDP and the Performance Management System (PMS) Policy is also under the remit of the OPM. Both policies are applicable to all O/M/As and RCs. The objectives of the PMS are to promote a culture of performance across the Public Service and to manage and improve service delivery across the public sector. The operationalisation of the PMS policy and the HRDP is depicted in Figure 5.1 which captures how both tailor-made and demand-driven programmes dovetail to improve public sector performance.

According to the Public Service Act, 1995 (Act 13 of 1995), the Public Service Commission (PSC) can make recommendations to the prime minister with regard to, inter alia, giving directions as to the age, education, language and qualifications, including training and experience, to be possessed by persons on appointment, transfer or promotion (Republic of Namibia, 1995:12).

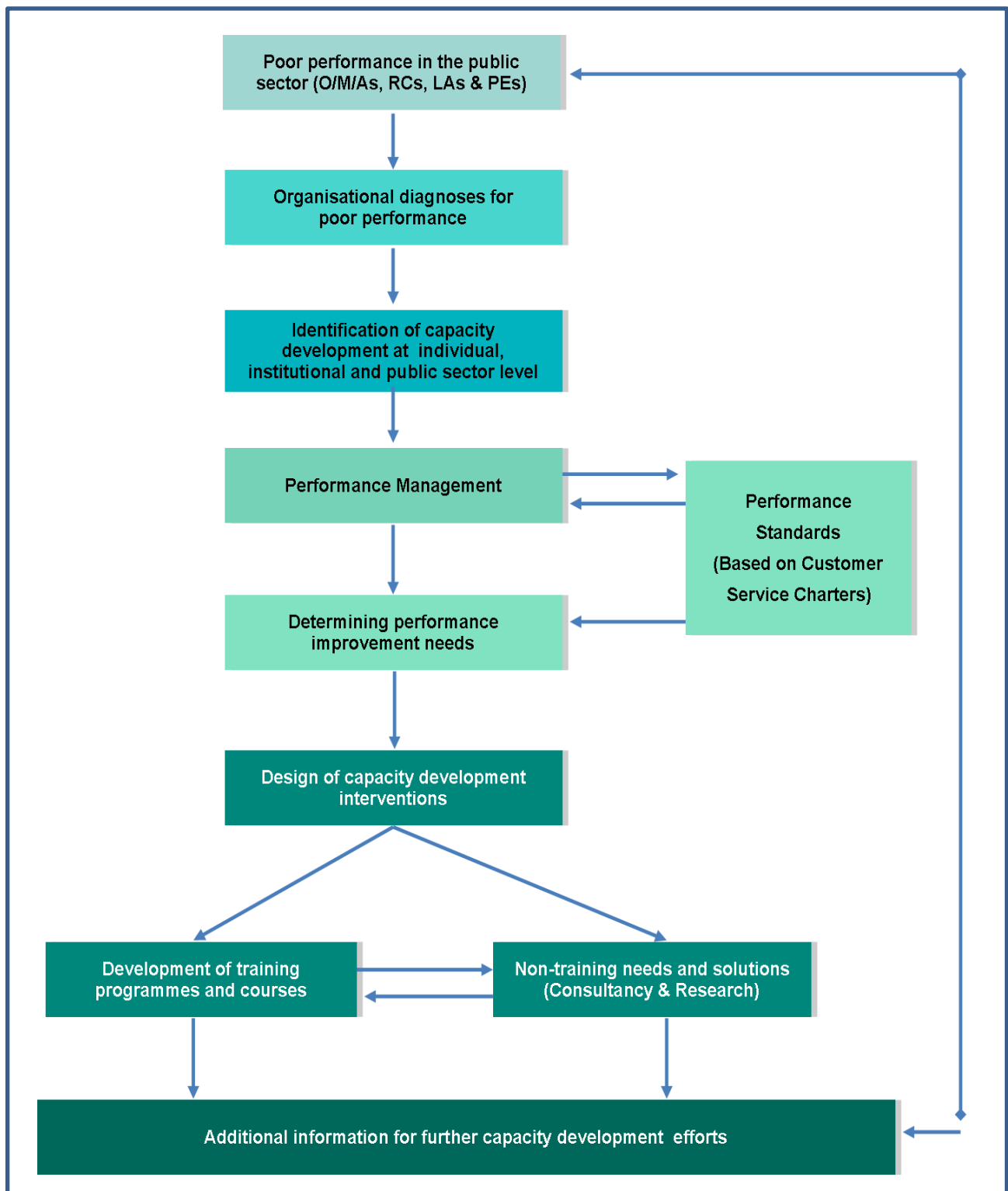


Figure 5.1: Tailor-made and demand-driven programmes to improve public sector performance.

Namibia's foreign policy is crafted to enable the pursuit of its national interests through the building of partnerships with countries around the world. This has provided an enabling environment for many bilateral agreements to assist with developing public sector capacity. Thus, the Ministry of International Relations and Cooperation (MIRCO) plays a coordinating role especially in instances where individuals have to attend international training courses or programmes outside the country. During these events, the MIRCO, through the DHRPD in the OPM, is informed to make the Namibian Consulate in the host country aware and to make the necessary consular arrangements for the staff member. There is unfortunately an unhelpful perception across the public sector that credible and quality training is only valuable when it is presented outside Namibia. Training presented outside the country is further considered more prestigious because monetary incentives. People are incentivised by daily subsistence and travel allowances.

With the promulgation of the Public Procurement Act under the Ministry of Finance, the Procurement Policy Unit has been established to, amongst other functions, prepare and conduct training programmes and approve training curricula on public procurement as proposed by training institutions for staff members, contractors and suppliers. The unit is also set to establish mandatory training standards, capacity building, competency levels, certification requirements and professional development paths for procurement practitioners in Namibia with the consent of the Minister (Republic of Namibia, 2015:23).

The Ministry of Urban and Rural Development (MURD) is responsible for ensuring economic, cultural and socio-economic development and providing subnational governments the resources to plan, budget for and provide services relevant to local needs. To this end, the MURD also provides training on decentralisation and local economic development. In addition, the MURD provides support to understand the various Acts pertaining to the subnational government sector. Finally, the MURD provides induction training of councillors at RCs and LA Councils.

Across all these government institutions, Accounting officers or permanent secretaries are accountable for the proper functional training and utilisation of staff members in their O/M/As. Equally, the Secretary to Cabinet coordinates the work of Permanent Secretaries

in the performance of their functions and is accountable to the prime minister for the efficiency and effectiveness of the Public Service (Republic of Namibia, 1995:32). All accounting officers are required to keep abreast of policy developments and changes relating to Public Service training and to ensure that these are known and properly applied by all personnel in their respective O/M/As so that a culture conducive to sustained training and development prevails in their respective public sector institutions.

Having discussed the main role players in the public sector capacity development environment, the next section introduces the Namibia Institute of Public Administration and Management (NIPAM).

5.5 The Namibia Institute of Public Administration and Management

5.5.1 Historical Foundations

The idea of a government training institute had its beginnings during the first Cabinet retreat of a newly independent Namibia in 2000 and was intended to be a comprehensive, integrated, dedicated training provider to government providing its clientele with comprehensive and practical toolkits to support policy formulation and implementation (Office of the Prime Minister, 2000:9). By 2001, the first concept note was developed and a project under the OPM was established with the main objective of developing a set of curricula and training syllabi to address the growing problem of management and leadership development for the public service.

In view of preparing NIPAM to fulfil its mandate in terms of its staffing, establishment, policies, regulations, systems and processes and in terms of the development of training curricula, a NIPAM Department under the OPM with only eight staff was established with the approval of the PSC. The Department was headed by an undersecretary and assisted by a technical expert from the government of India under the Indian Technical and Economic Cooperation (ITEC) Programme to assist in the groundwork and establishment of the Department.

In September 2005, the Cabinet by decision no. 21st/20.09.05/003 approved the creation of NIPAM alongside a policy framework. The Cabinet also approved the proposal for the

construction of a dedicated infrastructure of NIPAM. The subsequent Cabinet decision no. 14th/29.07.08/004 authorised the OPM to draft a NIPAM's Layman's Bill based on the NIPAM Policy Framework (Office of the Prime Minister, 2009:1). On 23 June 2010, the NIPAM Bill was finalised, passed by Parliament, signed by the President and gazetted on 14 July 2010. Under the NIPAM Act, 2010 (Act 10 of 2010), the Institute is defined as a public sector institute for training, operational research, capacity evaluation and consultancy. It is a statutory body run by the NIPAM Governing Council, chaired by the Secretary to Cabinet as per Section 7(2)(a) of the NIPAM Act, 2010 (Act 10 of 2010) and is an autonomous state-owned entity and a juristic person under the State-Owned Enterprise Governance Act.

In accordance with the NIPAM Act, 2010 (Act 10 of 2010) there are five main objectives of the NIPAM. Firstly, NIPAM is expected to deliver capacity building training programmes and interventions aimed at closing the skills gaps in the public service to enable public servants to deliver services efficiently and effectively. Secondly, NIPAM is to improve operational excellence in order to develop a new generation of holistic managers with capacity to manage public policies, strategies and projects in dynamic and complex environments. Thirdly, the institute is to conduct consultancy and research in areas of public administration and management, to document good practices and success and failure stories and to create a databank of such practices for public sector capacity building. The fourth objective is for NIPAM to establish an observatory of capacity building needs in the Namibian Public Service, especially through capacity evaluation, regular surveys, impact assessment studies for government, development and donor agencies and to undertake private sector and public management consulting assignments; and fifthly, to establish a think tank for the public sector of Namibia and to organise debates, workshops or seminars on topics related to public administration and management (Republic of Namibia, 2010:4).

The construction of phase one of the NIPAM infrastructure started in January 2008 with 100 per cent financial support from the Government at a cost of N\$40 million (Sasman, 2011:4). It comprises training venues and state-of-the-art conferencing facilities, a computer lab, a library, administrative offices as well as its own kitchen to host the

cafeteria. The construction was completed in January 2010, coinciding with the passing of the Act. Exactly a year later, the President officially opened the building and NIPAM on 25 February 2011 (Namibia Institute of Public Administration and Management, 2013:9).

With the launch of the NIPAM and the concurrent appointment of the NIPAM Governing Council (GC), the process of seconding and transferring staff members of the NIPAM Department to NIPAM took place. At the time, and with NIPAM being a new institution, there was no defined structure to direct its operations. The GC, however, after their appointment, was required to come up with a complete structure of NIPAM. This structure would be expected to implement the mandate of the institution under the Act.

The NIPAM Act, 2010 (Act 10 of 2010) requires that the institute develop a five-year strategic plan and an annual business plan, which is the key instrument for ensuring governance and performance agreements between the OPM and the GC of NIPAM. The strategic plan sets out the vision, mission, objectives and initiatives of NIPAM in line with Vision 2030, NDPs, the South West African People's Organisation (SWAPO) Manifesto, the Medium-Term Expenditure Framework (MTEF) and training needs. Additionally, the NIPAM strategic plan provides the roadmap for meeting the strategic objectives and is an instrument for the management of organisational performance. The strategic plan was to serve as the foundation for the Performance Management System (PMS) at NIPAM. It is the basis for Performance Agreements (PAs) at Business Centre. The strategy is then translated into the desired action for NIPAM at the individual/staff level by providing a framework for staff to have a shared vision and a strategic tool for communications and marketing the institute and its services. Finally, the strategic plan identifies the entry points for the transformation of the public service (Namibia Institute of Public Administration and Management, 2013:4).

However since its inception in 2010, the Institute has been associated with the wider, and often controversial, discussions around the type of institution it would be, its operational model, its philosophy and what unique service propositions it would render as a public entity. The initial ideas were for the NIPAM to deliver a 16-week foundation course on general public administration and some skills (for instance on the Namibian Constitution,

public finances, social services, economics, statistics and international affairs). However, this was mostly directed at the lower levels of the Public Service. As is the case with many PEs under scrutiny, a local article expressed its concern indicating that:

Since its inception two years ago in 2011, the Namibian Institute of Public Administration and Management has not attracted the required number of trainees and enrolment has remained disappointingly low. In its two-year existence the institute has enrolled less than 1,200 civil servants of the over 90,000, who judged from the poor quality of service received from Government, are in dire need of training (*The Windhoek Observer*, 2014:10).

Thus far, the use of longitudinal data taken from the NIPAM Annual Reports to examine and refute this statement has unfortunately not been helpful. Since 2010, the total cumulative number of participants trained has been less than 10 000, averaging between 1 500 and 1 800 participants trained per annum. Put differently, the institution has trained less than ten per cent of the total number of public servants since its inception in 2010. While this is an important element warranting additional information, it is necessary to provide additional context in the sections which follow, starting with the governance and institutional setup of NIPAM.

5.5.2 Governance and Institutional Setup

The governance of the institute is pillared on a number of instruments. The NIPAM Act, 2010 (Act 10 of 2010) establishes NIPAM as a juristic person and an SOE governed in terms of the following: the State-owned Enterprises Governance Act, 2006 (Act No. 2 of 2006) as amended; the Governing Council Charter; relevant and applicable provisions of the NamCode; the King IV Code; and the NIPAM Policy 2008-2013 Framework. In addition to the above legislative framework, the key role players involved in the governance of the institute consist of the GC, Committees of Council, the TDB and the executive director (ED). Part of the institutional setup also requires a discussion on the structure of NIPAM which includes the GC, the TDB and the ED. These are discussed next.

5.5.2.1 The Governing Council

It has always been the intention of government to set NIPAM up as a state-owned institution to ensure it was more or less detached and also relatively autonomous from government, which would prove key to its responsiveness and relevance (Office of the Prime Minister, 2000). However, in terms of institutional arrangements, it would still resort and be funded under the OPM and was effectively seen as still part of the centre of government but the centre was also the commissioner of the programmes it offered. This is different from either the wholly independent academic approach of other state and higher education institutions such as the NUST or UNAM. The NIPAM currently has a separate financial and management framework. For many, this issue has an important undercurrent running throughout as it speaks to its sustainability and funding model.

To deliver on the objectives and the mandate of NIPAM, the GC is tasked with the generation of revenue and the provision of financial sustainability. The GC of the NIPAM is constituted in terms of and members are appointed for a period of three years under sections 14 and 15 of the State-owned Enterprise Governance Act and section 7 of the NIPAM Act, 2010 (Act 10 of 2010). The GC members consist of: The secretary to the cabinet, as chairperson; the executive director, ex officio; two persons selected by the prime minister; a person nominated by the Namibia Chamber of Commerce and Industry; a person nominated by the Public Service Commission; a person nominated by the recognised trade union with an exclusive bargaining status for public service employees; a person nominated by the Association of Regional Councils; a person nominated by the Association of the Local Authorities in Namibia; and two persons nominated by NIPAM to represent the capacity building, research or related interests of NIPAM, taking the gender balance into consideration (Republic of Namibia, 2010:12).

The tenure of GC members, given the three-year office term, has contributed to the lack of continuity in decision-making, leaving gaps in the historical and institutional memory. As a case in point, during the fourth year of the original strategic plan, as the five-year cycle drew to a close, leadership and sustainability concerns predominated and NIPAM began to engage in deep organisational soul-searching. Relating this introspection to their functions

as provided for in section 8 of the NIPAM Act, 2010 (Act 10 of 2010), the GC is charged with, amongst others: developing the policy framework of the institution; approving its Strategic and Annual Business Plans along with the annual budget(s), annual reports, including financial statements and accounts; approving capital projects and infrastructure; approving the structure and positions; and appointing, suspending or discharging administrative staff, trainers, specialists or consultants of NIPAM (Republic of Namibia, 2010:8).

Given these functions and responsibilities, there are several strategic issues which remain unresolved and continue to be discussed on various platforms. These issues include: the strategic positioning and NIPAM's role as a centre of excellence in driving research, innovation and supporting government's reform agenda; the sustainability and funding of NIPAM; its philosophy on capacity development; whether it is to be accredited as a training provider with the NQA for its courses to be registered; and its utilisation of resource persons/relationships with partner institutions.

5.5.2.2 The Training and Development Board

Sections 16 of the NIPAM Act, 2010 (Act 10 of 2010) provides for the composition of the TDB which prescribes the institutions in nominating persons for appointment as members of the TDB. According to Section 16 (2) (c), members of the Council who are appointed in terms of section 7 (2) (i) are automatically members of the TDB, while section 16 (2) (a) and (b) of the NIPAM Act, 2010 (Act 10 of 2010) appoints the ED as the Chairperson and the Deputy ED as the Vice Chairperson of the TDB.

In addition, section 16 (2) (d) and (e) provides for the appointment of a staff member from the NIPAM senior management and a training specialist from the training staff of NIPAM as substantive members of the TDB. In terms of the role and functions of the TDB, section 16 of the NIPAM Act, 2010 (Act 10 of 2010) spells out the organisation and superintendence of capacity development interventions, training programmes, courses, instructions, curricula, assessment, award of qualifications, accreditation, research and consultancy activities vested in the TDB.

In order to effectively support the NIPAM GC, section 17 of the NIPAM Act, 2010 (Act 10 of 2010) prescribes that the TDB is tasked with amongst others, developing the strategic and annual business plan of NIPAM; coordinating national capacity building activities with the Ministry of Education and the National Planning Commission; developing the curricula, training design and implementation strategy; determining norms and standards for the award of qualifications and accreditation for approval from the Namibia Qualifications Authority or other accreditation bodies; and, in doing so, exercising quality control and ensuring value for money (Republic of Namibia, 2010:13). As with the NIPAM GC, the TDB has expressed its concerns with regard to a number of these functions over the years. Some of the main challenges are captured in Figure 5.2 and are explained in the sections which follow.

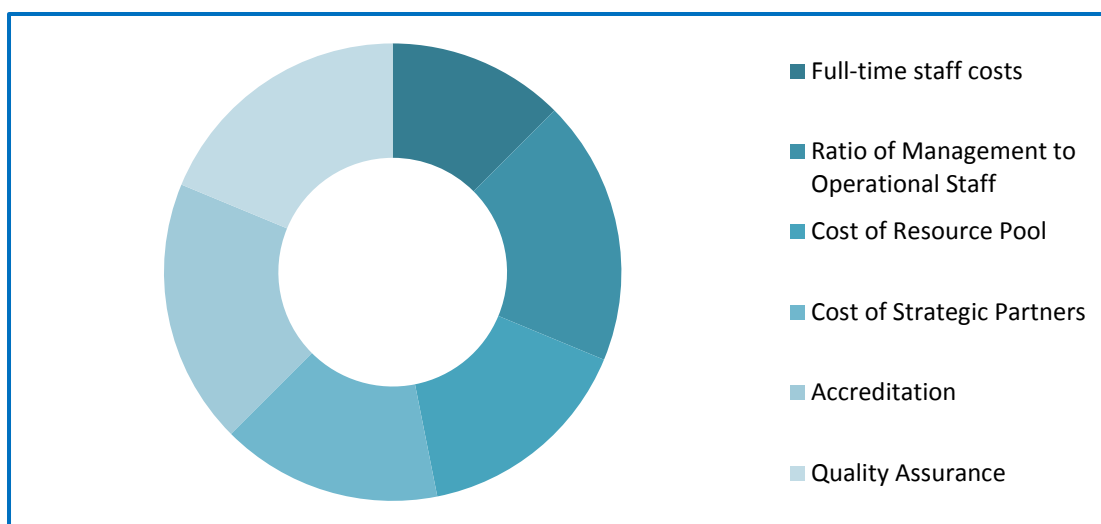


Figure 5.2: Emerging Challenges at NIPAM

5.5.2.3 The Executive Director

The ED is the chief executive of the NIPAM. The ED's functions include, amongst others: policy issues; coordination; monitoring and evaluation; external and international relations such as the identification and advancement of technical assistance with development partners and technical agreements; lobbying and advocacy; and, finally, the management of NIPAM's relations with its stakeholders. The ED is responsible for ensuring that the decisions taken by the NIPAM GC are implemented by all the business centres and meet the mandate set out by the NIPAM Act, 2010 (Act 10 of 2010).

5.5.2.4 Organisational Structure

In 2011, the newly appointed first ED of NIPAM, along with the transferred and assigned staff, commenced with the development of a strategic plan in order to define its role in the public sector. They were joined by strategically selected senior managers of the OPM who represented the directorates responsible for strategic planning, human resource management, job evaluation and grading, and organisation and establishment. Together, the group worked on a number of key activities, which included the operationalisation of the Act, institutionalisation of its operations and attempts to establish itself as the preferred provider of training and development for the public sector. More importantly, NIPAM was also tasked with describing its role with regard to coping with the demands of the system, especially with regard to improving public sector performance and supporting administrative reform.

Thus, the initial structure was one of the outcomes of the strategic planning process which was later approved by the NIPAM GC in 2011 and formed the basis for NIPAM's recruitment. Unfortunately, the structure has been the focus of considerable debate given that it has been subjected to review almost annually. In 2012 and 2013, several discussions were held to take stock of the NIPAM structure to deliberate on its effectiveness for meeting the needs of its mandate (Namibia Institute of Public Administration and Management, 2015). The key elements of the structure, which prevailed (with several iterations) in the next strategic plan of the NIPAM (2017-2021), were adopted in terms of how work is organised according to business centres. Three core centres were established and are currently grouped together based on the sector it serves. These are the Central Government Business Centre (CGBC), the Regional and Local Government Business Centre (RLGBC) and the State-Owned Enterprise Business Centre (SOEBC).

Similarly, there are administrative and support units which are grouped according to functions performed, such as finance, human resources (administration), information (technology), library and estate/procurement. According to the structure, the chain of command should be clearly defined and employees should know whom to contact when

they have a problem and to whom they are responsible. Equally, the rights for operational decision-making or empowerment are inherent to the office of business centre heads or directors, who are accountable to the ED. Some of the concerns raised by the TDB were issues related to the employment costs in relation to revenue, whether the job descriptions were drafted and graded, and how the terms and conditions of existing employees would be affected. The revised structure was to address NIPAM's problem of high administrative costs relative to core business staff costs, resulting in a high wage bill. More importantly, the existing structure was very heavy on management and administrative personnel in relation to the core business staff (Namibia Institute of Public Administration and Management, 2014).

In October 2014, the GC approved the realigned organisational structure with a total staff complement of 56. This structure was deemed to remain in place for the 2016/2017 financial year (Namibia Institute of Public Administration and Management, 2015). Although the structure was meant to be critically evaluated for efficiency and effectiveness in tandem with the development of the new five-year strategic plan in 2017, another change of leadership brought different ideas of what the structure was to look like. The following organisational structure (Figure 5.3) reflects the current NIPAM management structure, which includes the GC and the TDB. This NIPAM management structure was adopted in October 2016 and is currently being implemented.

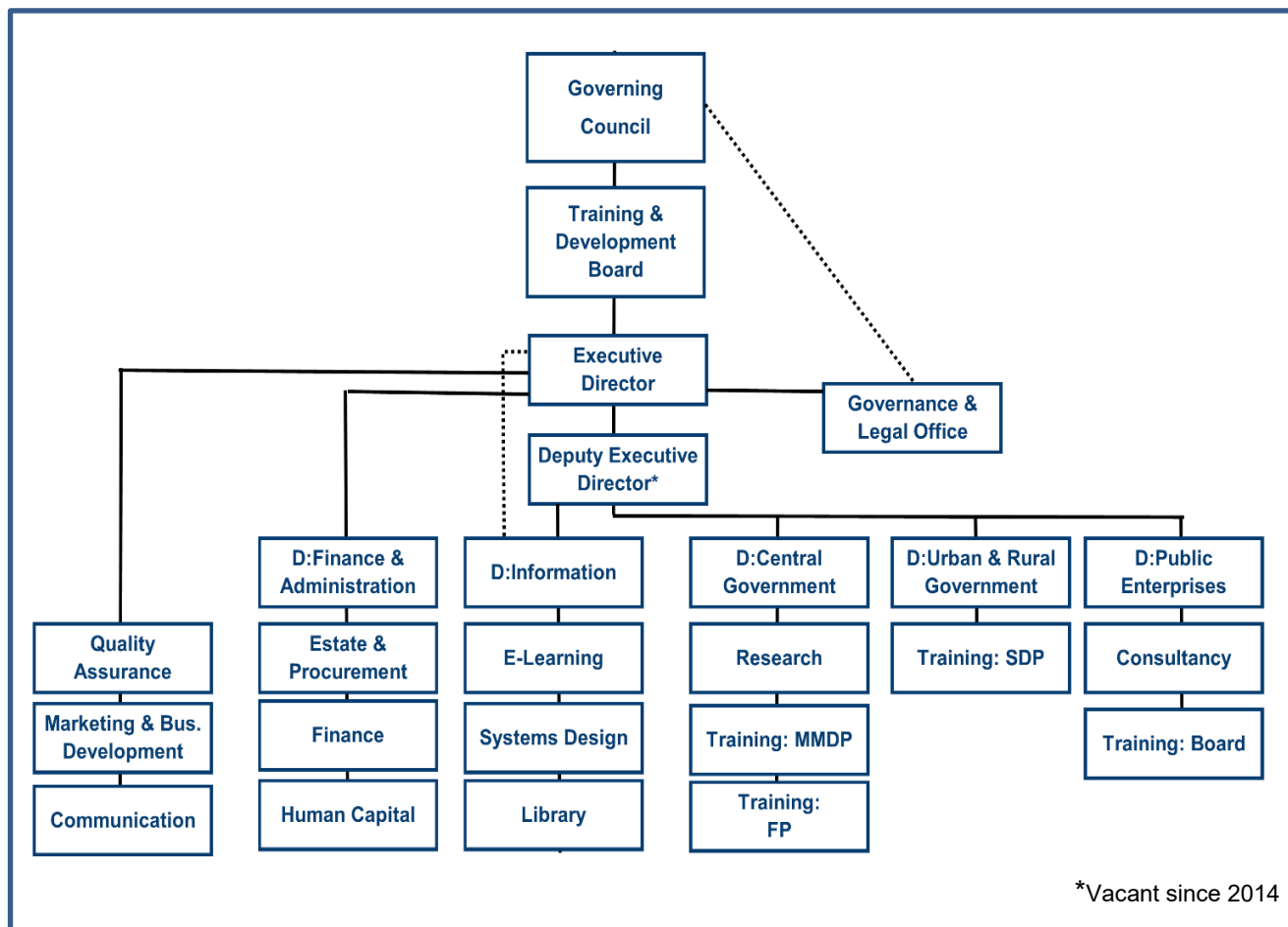


Figure 5.3: Organisational Structure of NIPAM as at March 2017

While the current structure of NIPAM is defined on paper, it operates differently in practice. The position of the DED has been vacant since 2014, pending the clarification of the incumbent's scope of responsibilities and duties. The Executive Committee (Exco) consists of six directors who are responsible for their respective functions as indicated in the organogram in Figure 5.3 and who all currently report to the ED with the exception of the director of the Governance and Legal Office who has a dual reporting line to the ED and the chairman of the GC.

The decision-making processes are undertaken by individuals who are unclear about their roles, responsibilities and scope of work. Therefore, decision making is driven largely by a flat and broad management structure. There are 15 managers whose functions have been defined based on their role in the structure. Of the 15, three managers report directly to the ED. Directors have a very narrow span of control, given that all decisions are taken

collectively at Exco meetings. Similarly, besides the job grade on paper, there is no distinction between the roles of the general Management Committee (Manco) which comprises all employees who are on the Patterson D-Band and comprise at least 60% of the institution.

This current arrangement confuses its governance as there are also a number of committees, such as the AC which deliberates on matters related to training, the Business Process Reengineering Committee, the Bid Evaluation Committee, the Procurement Committee and the HR Committee, which have been established to ensure that there is a flow of activities and a sharing of responsibilities. These committees, which are comprised of the same management staff, all report on their activities to the Manco and to the Exco which are both currently chaired by the ED.

There are frequent complaints regarding the absence of coordination, which also results in incomplete tasks and projects, with important aspects falling through the cracks. There are also reported instances of unnecessary friction due to the overlaps and duplication of roles, responsibilities and resources. At times, to counter the emerging challenges, rules and regulations are made sporadically at committees and meetings, which are held to deal with every challenge.

Ironically, the current setup was necessitated by a need to have a more robust workflow throughout the organisation and an attempt to break down the work silos across NIPAM. By the same token, the overreliance on the various committees is embodied in cumbersome and lengthy meetings. The current operations unsurprisingly impact on NIPAM's responsiveness where the institution is not able to respond to the needs of the clients or the changing environment (Ernst & Young, 2017:3). Furthermore, according to an internal audit concluded early in 2017, the current operations are reported to be fragmented and do not allow for sector-specific front-line and customer-facing staff to take quick decisions on customers' requests or to provide immediate feedback (Ernst & Young, 2017:3). Of particular importance from the standpoint of decision-making is that the 120 resource pool members, the facilitators and consultants, which NIPAM drew on over the

past five years since its establishment, were completely removed from the planning and decision-making processes.

Decisions affecting their conditions of service, fee structure, performance – from curriculum and materials development to the equipment and materials used in their course offerings and the style of delivery – were discussed and taken in their absence. While largely occasioned by the new developments and regulations pertaining to the implementation of the Public Procurement Act (2015), the contracts of the existing pool, albeit still valid, were declared null and void immediately after the Act's promulgation. This non-participatory approach and lack of engagement in view of contract termination also prevented many of the old resource pool from applying.

5.5.3 Operational Strategy

The vision of the NIPAM is to be “[a] world-class management development institute that catalyses the transformation of the Namibian Public sector into a developmental and entrepreneurial system” (NIPAM, 2012:2). The mission statement of NIPAM is as follows: “To transform the Public Sector of Namibia into an efficient, effective and accountable system through capacity development, consulting and research, operational excellence, capacity development evaluation, and strategic partnerships”. The mandate is derived from Section 5 of the NIPAM Act, 2010 (Act 10 of 2010) (Republic of Namibia, 2010:6).

Similarly, the objectives of NIPAM under section 5, subsection (b) of the Act indicate that the MDI is to provide training and conduct assessments and/or examinations which would vouch for the competence of individuals who have passed the assessments to qualify for the “appointment, promotion or transfer of persons in and to the public service” (Republic of Namibia, 2010:5). This clause has been translated into defining the entry points for the mandatory and supply-driven flagship training programmes for the Namibian Public Service as depicted in Figure 5.4. Put differently, to create a unified understanding of the Namibian public sector, the purpose of the flagship programmes is to promote a consistent understanding and integrated perspective of the role of the public service and its related institutions across the public sector. Therefore, the flagship programmes are to

equip people with the necessary competencies for the level to which they seek to be promoted or transferred, irrespective of whether it is a CG, RC or LA or PE.

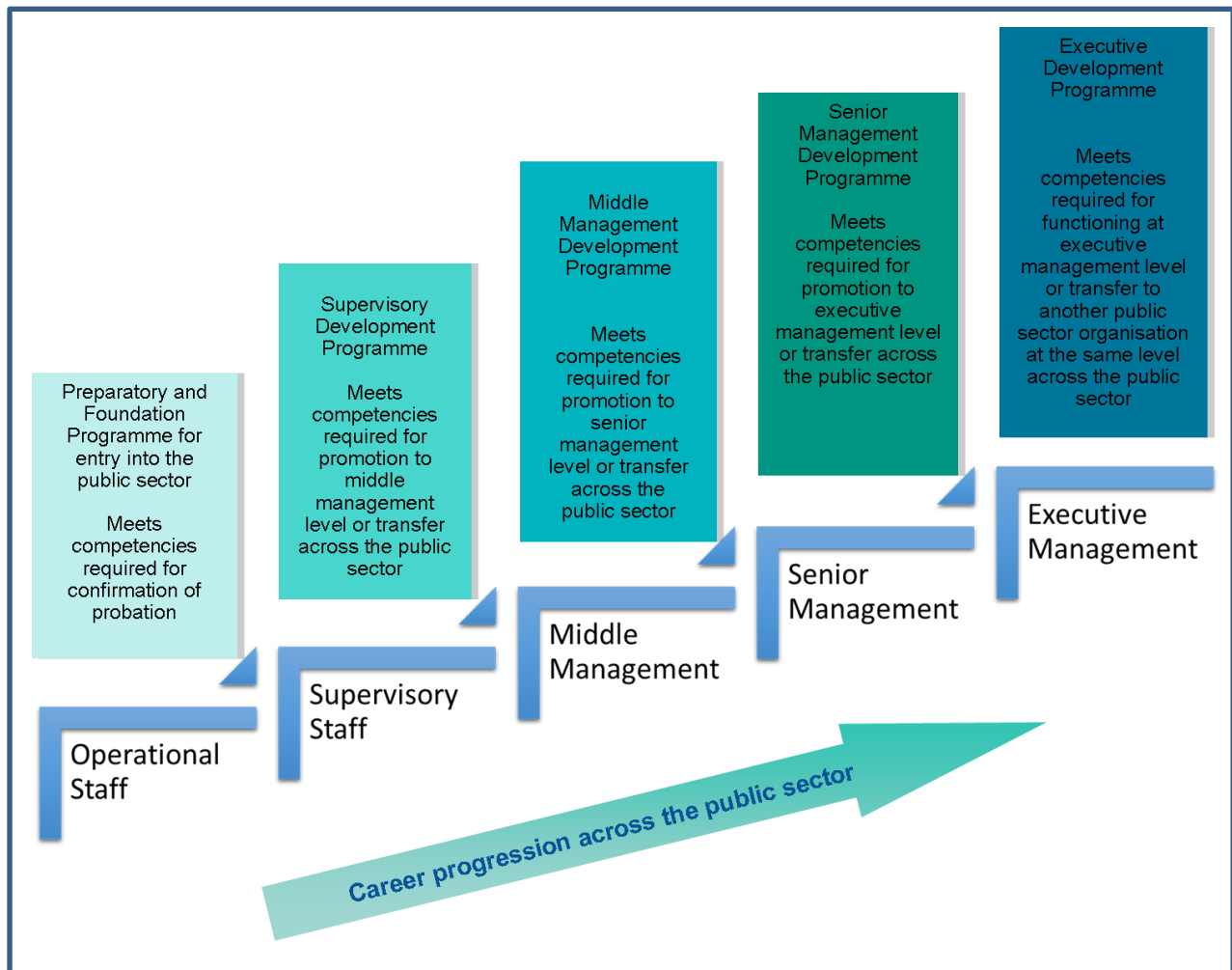


Figure 5.4 Entry points for the mandatory (supply driven) training programs for the Namibian Public Service - NIPAM Act, 2010 (Act 10 of 2010)

This idea had its origin during the first cabinet retreat, which was later translated into a Layman's Draft, forming subsequent clauses within the NIPAM Act, 2010 (Act 10 of 2010). To promote its understanding, the institute was expected to develop and enhance key leadership and management competencies to drive performance and promote a public service ethos of professionalism, identity and citizen-centrism (Cabinet Retreat, 2000:9). This would be done through the institution's four-pronged mandate of providing training, consultancy, research and a think-tank in policy analysis to ensure the implementation of

key issues reflected in the ruling party manifesto. Accordingly, government's expectation of NIPAM was to develop the professional competencies at the top echelons of the public sector to drive the reform agenda required to bring about a lean, efficient and effective public sector for the twenty-first century and a competitive world (Cabinet Retreat, 2000:8).

STRATEGIC THEMES	STRATEGIC OBJECTIVES
Capacity Development	1.1 Provide choice. 1.2 Provide appropriate capacity development. 1.3 Provide competitive and quality services. 1.4 Sustain innovative learning. 1.5 Ensure responsive regulatory framework. 1.6 Maintain an updated learning resource centre. 1.7 Ensure reliable IT for capacity development.
Consultancy and Research	2.1 Enhance knowledge management. 2.2 Strengthen policy dialogue and research. 2.3 Enhance organisational development. 2.4 Maintain credible resource pool.
Operational Excellence	3.1 Improve organisational performance. 3.2 Ensure good corporate governance. 3.3 Create a conducive learning environment. 3.4 Create a conducive working environment. 3.5 Develop HR and functional competencies. 3.6 Attract and retain experienced and qualified staff. 3.7 Ensure prudent financial management. 3.8 Ensure long-term financial sustainability. 3.9 Ensure compliance to IFRS and other relevant legislation.
Capacity Development Evaluation	4.1 Improve institutional image. 4.2 Foster sound strategic partnerships.

Strategic Partnerships	<p>5.1 Ensure effectiveness and quality of capacity development interventions.</p> <p>5.2 Ensure effective client relations management.</p>
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Table 5.1: Strategic themes, definitions and objectives of the NIPAM 2012-2016 Strategic Plan

This idea was raised as a key principle which was adopted during the development of the first strategic plan which ran from 2012 to 2016. Once the strategic plan of NIPAM was completed, five strategic themes were identified to meet the vision, mission and mandate of NIPAM. These are capacity development, consultancy and research, operational excellence, capacity development evaluation, and strategic partnerships which are all captured in Table 5.1. Each of the five strategic themes articulate related initiatives which, in turn, are related to key performance indicators and outputs assigned to the respective custodians and Business Centres. These will be discussed next.

5.5.3.1 Capacity Development

This theme focuses on the process through which individuals, groups and institutions from the public sector develop, enhance and organise their systems, resources and knowledge. This is reflected in their abilities, individually and collectively, to perform functions, solve problems and achieve objectives. Capacity development within the context of NIPAM may be seen as a learning process which involves the sharpening and acquisition of analytical, creative, advisory, administrative and other skills, attitudes and knowledge to enhance the performance of public servants and establish a performance culture. Once such competencies are acquired, public servants should be able to formulate and execute policies and directives, respond to change, including changes in social, cultural and linguistic character of the Namibian society, and implement government programmes, resources and services efficiently, effectively, sustainably and equitably (Republic of Namibia, 2010:5).

Under the training or academic centres, NIPAM's initial services were to focus on the delivery of management/leadership courses and had three main streams: major courses in

administration, performance improvement and management; shorter courses for the larger body of the public sector; and research conducted into problems of administration and machinery of government questions.

The first set of management and leadership development programmes which were developed under this strategic plan were premised on the need to cascade the various public sector competencies from the strategic level right down to the operational level. A number of strategic partners were engaged to co-develop and deliver an Executive Development Programme (EDP), Senior Management Development Programme (SMDP) and a Middle Management Development Programme (MMDP). Unfortunately, at the end of 2016 and with the new ED charged with the development of a new strategic plan, there was a principal decision to disengage from the strategic partners in favour of developing integrated home-grown, local programmes. As a result of this decision, the EDP, delivered in collaboration with the Wits Business School, the SMDP, delivered in collaboration with Stellenbosch University's School of Public Leadership, and the MMDP, delivered in collaboration with the Southern Business School, along with NIPAM resource persons were all suspended.

At the same time, all 70 programmes which NIPAM had developed and delivered over the years were also put on hold pending their review and alignment with the quality standards and accreditation criteria which were to be developed. The only exceptions made were to the delivery of the Foundation Programme (FP) and the Supervisory Development Programme (SDP). Both programmes were developed in-house and were designed to orientate both new and current public sector officials to the fundamental understanding of Namibia's public sector, the political economy, democratic values and legislative environment, ethics and professionalism and instil an esprit de corps at operational and supervisory level (NIPAM, 2017:8).

With the SDP, supervisors across the public sector are expected to function as exemplars for the people who they supervise and lead. Accordingly, the SDP is meant to equip participants with the competencies related to the planning, leading, organising and controlling functions. These broad public sector generic management functions deal with

managing individual and group performance and contextualise the content to the public sector as one entity (NIPAM, 2017:4).

Figure 5.5 provides a graphic account of the total number of participants trained per centre since 2011. Since NIPAM's operations have commenced, NIPAM has trained 9 165 participants. Of this number, 699 are from public enterprises and have been trained under the State-Owned Enterprise Business Centre (SOEBC), 3 330 are from Regional Councils and Local Authorities as reported by the Regional and Local Government Business Centre (RLGBC), and the remaining 5 452 are from central government and were trained under the Central Government Business Centre (CGBC).

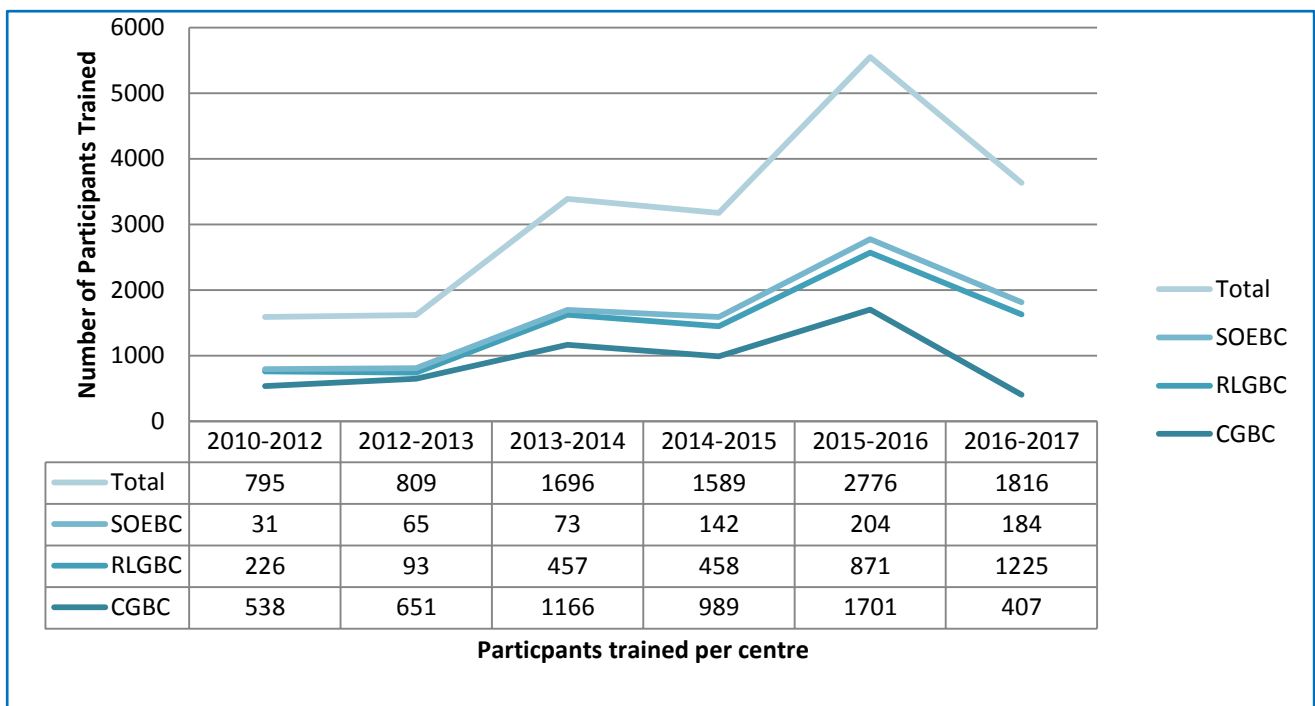


Figure 5.5: Participants trained per centre since 2011

The data reported here in view of NIPAM's performance which is on average less than 2000 annually, and given that the annual turnover in the public service according to the Public Service Commission's statistics is approximately 5 000, appears to support the negative assumptions and questions regarding NIPAM's relevance and responsiveness (Public Service Commission, 2014:38). Relating this to the financial performance of the institute, the following trend analysis over the past seven years illustrating the revenue

generated against the costs of the wage bill provides an indication that unless the issue of balancing the employee costs, which are the largest expense, is addressed, the sustainability of the institute may be at stake.

An observation is that the employee costs or the wage bill far exceeds the revenue generated over the years by the institution. For instance, the current employee cost in 2016/17 as a percentage of the total revenue is -176% and is well above the threshold of 45% (Ernst & Young, 2017:4). Put differently, the annual revenue, which includes the government grant, amounts to - 69%, confirming the concerns raised by both the NIPAM GC and TDB highlighted in the earlier sections. A detailed breakdown of the costs is provided in Appendix 1.

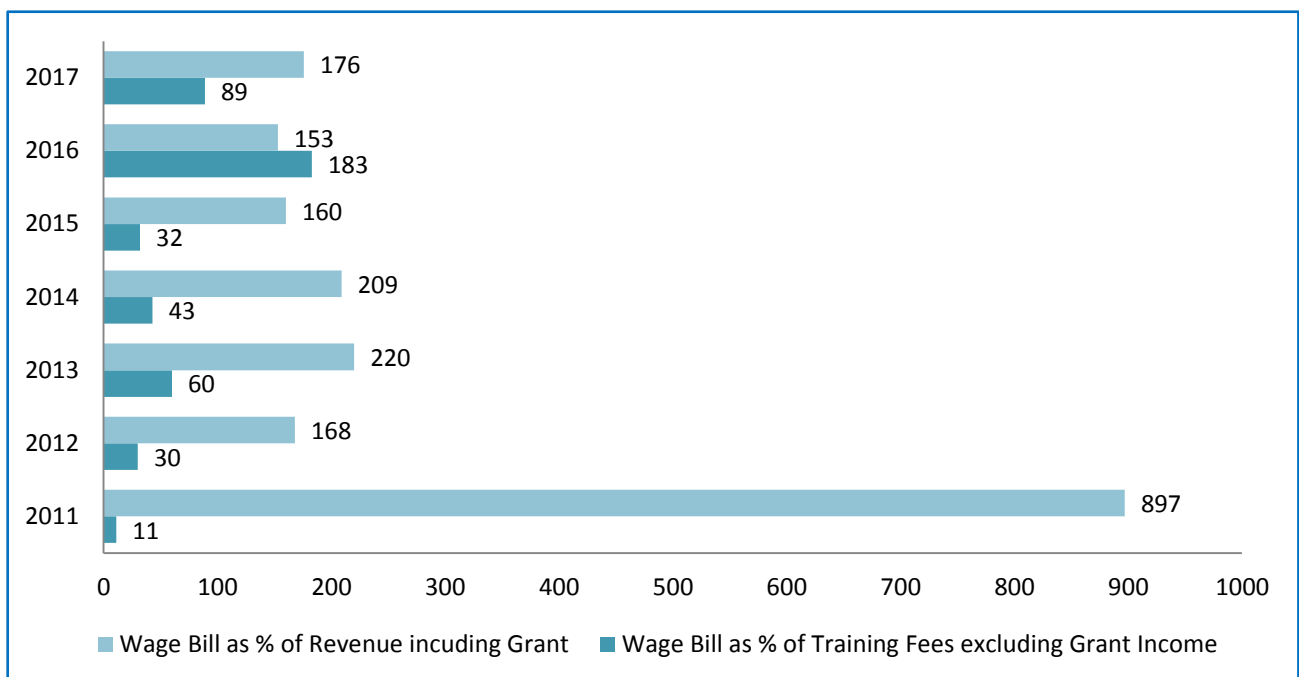


Figure 5.6: NIPAM's Wage Bill as Percentage of Revenue Costs and Grant Income 2010-2017

5.5.3.2 Consultancy and Research

This theme focuses on identifying challenges encountered by public sector institutions, generating solutions and disseminating evidence-based research and knowledge to enable innovation. In addition, NIPAM is expected to support the government's national

development agenda. In order to achieve this objective, NIPAM is expected to collaborate and engage stakeholders such as the PSC, the OPM, the Ministry of Finance, the MPE and the MURD. These public sector institutions have compatible mandates with NIPAM and should focus on strengthening collaborative efforts to support the government in the implementation of programmes to improve governance and service delivery.

These engagements should be undertaken after consultations with policymaking and oversight institutions, such as the NPC, the PSC, the NQA and the NTA, to craft specialised training programmes which are evidence-based and supported by valid and reliable research. This would ideally contribute towards promoting the status of NIPAM as a government-recognised institution and contribute to the credibility and support of such institutions.

Efforts towards advancing these research and consultancy interventions have been minimal to date. Research is virtually non-existent at NIPAM. If at all possible, the institute should be renowned for its involvement in collaborative research and its contribution to international journals and conferences. This lack of research unfortunately impacts on NIPAM's ability to contribute towards its mandate of bringing about a Namibian public sector that is professional, unified and dedicated to the development goals of the country as articulated explicitly and implicitly in Vision 2030 and the National Development Programmes (NDPs). The values in the aforementioned should be cross-cutting and promote citizen-centric, non-partisan and development-oriented programmes, empowering all Namibians who must believe that to work for the public sector is not a right, but a privilege. Given these ideals, the theme of operational excellence was conceived whilst developing NIPAM's first strategic plan to embed these values as described in the next section.

5.5.3.2 Operational Excellence

This theme is inward-looking and focuses on the continuous improvement of internal business processes of NIPAM but also on the needs and expectations for the key stakeholders. The process of empowering NIPAM staff seeks to optimise organisational

learning and continuous improvement in order to render excellent services to its clients in accordance with the Customer Service Charter and the values embedded in the Namibian Public Service Charter. To realise this objective, the principal focus is to continuously improve internal business process by targeting the needs and expectations of stakeholders and dedicated staff development efforts. Another vital aspect rooted in this strategic objective is for NIPAM to comply with principles of good corporate governance, statutes and best practices. In this way, the reputation of the institute is well enhanced while delivering on the mandate in an effective, efficient, fair accountable, responsible and transparent manner. On these aspects, Ernst and Young (2017:2-6) was appointed as internal auditor and audits have been completed on HR and revenue and recognition cycles over the three years since operations commenced in 2011.

The first audit on training management only commenced in 2016, highlighting several high-risk areas. Amongst these were, firstly, the lack of coordination across the three centres and ineffective planning of the academic calendar were described as high risks. Another high-risk issue identified was that the academic training programmes which were planned for the academic year did not meet the needs and expectations of the customers. At the same time, it was also observed that the price rates charged for academic training programmes were not reviewed and updated on an annual basis. Finally, the fact that some staff members might be performing incompatible functions also indicated a high-risk observation, once again confirming the concerns around staffing and the structure raised by the GC and the TDB (Ernst & Young, 2017:2-6).

5.5.3.3 Capacity Evaluation

Capacity evaluation focuses on the need for NIPAM to have a systematic method of measuring a public sector official's ability to perform meaningful tasks such as the ability to formulate and execute policies and directives, respond to change, including changes in the social, cultural, racial and linguistic character of the Namibian society, and implement government programmes, resources and services efficiently, effectively, sustainably and equitably (NIPAM, 2012:23).

There appears to have been little appreciation on the part of the NIPAM management of the purpose of conducting evaluation to learn. Several reasons could be given to explain NIPAM's alienation from its own evaluation process and failure to learn from evaluations. Firstly, the leadership transitions failed to provide the continuity even in honouring the Memoranda of Agreement (MoAs) between partner institutions. Secondly, there was always a perception that the information generated from the evaluations was never intended for NIPAM's own use as the strategic partners delivering the programmes were always seen as the primary user of this information. Since the information generated was seen as meeting someone else's needs, there was never any real attempt in the organisation to integrate it into learning and decision-making. Thirdly, the attitudes of management did not suggest a predisposition towards learning and growth.

According to an internal report which was commissioned by the GC, the staff at NIPAM appear to embrace a tendency towards entitlement. This may be premised on NIPAM's value proposition of offering a set of totally unique, current and relevant management and leadership development programmes that equip public sector officials with sought-after knowledge, skills and the proper work ethic. While this may have been the original idea, the evidence does not necessarily support it. The lack of understanding of NIPAM's vision, mission and mandate suggests that, in spite of the slow pace of training activity, the training itself did not do much to improve marketability for the public sector clientele. The consequence is that NIPAM has not been able to make the desired impact (Visions Consulting, 2015:26).

A poignant example of this was the management development programmes which were launched by the Centre of Regional and Local Government specifically for the subnational government sector in 2014 whilst the MMDP and the SMDP were being implemented. The new sector-based programmes were introduced without any consideration or holistic evaluation of the current programmes (MMDP and SMDP) which were coordinated by the Central Government Centre. If there was no demand for the MMDP or the SMDP, the participants would lack the basic competencies required at those levels to adapt according to their sector and either enrol in a more advanced training programme since the training offered would have been irrelevant.

Similar examples abounded in which the middle management and some directors were fully aware of the problems but never expressed their concerns and ideas or were ignored if they did. Some things were simply undiscussable. In other words, everyone knew about it but was not prepared to voice their opinions publicly. At meetings, members often reserved their opinions on certain key issues because of the perception that their comments would not count for anything or that no action would be taken anyway (Personal Interview, 2017).

5.5.3.4 Strategic Partnerships

This theme focuses on collaboration through strategic partnerships. In particular, this theme focuses on strengthening alliances between the public sector and civil society organisations at central, regional and local levels and with other institutions and bodies with similar objectives at continental and international level. In this regard, the statement made by the Head of State at the launch of the institution urges NIPAM

... to leave no stone unturned to transform our civil service into a professional entity that fully understands its mandate, deeply steeped in the values of honesty, integrity, transparency and accountability and driven by the desire to excel. In this context, NIPAM should collaborate with other training institutions in the country to create synergies for success and cross-fertilisation of ideas (Pohamba, 2011:2).

While the management development programmes were discussed under the capacity development theme, the manner in which they were implemented was through strategic partnerships. Hence, it is also useful to provide some examples of key partnerships which were implemented during the first strategic plan under the current theme.

The advancement of strategic partnerships within the first two years of NIPAM's launch was supposed to lead to collaboration with well-established and credible institutions in order to achieve a common goal and purpose. To this end, NIPAM embarked on a process of signing several Memoranda of Agreement (MoAs) with selected MDIs, professional institutes, schools of public leadership and government – not only in Africa but also

internationally. The purpose of these MoAs was to develop organic partnerships that would strengthen the institute's state of readiness to respond to its mandate and deliver in accord with the objectives of Vision 2030.

One year after the launch of NIPAM, the Institute signed a three-year MoA with the School of Public Leadership (SPL) of Stellenbosch University to support the management and leadership development of senior managers across the public sector. The MoA was devised to support the design, development and delivery of the SMDP. This programme is accredited by the South African Qualification Authority (SAQA) at level 8 and was in the process of registration with the Namibian counterpart, namely the NQA. However, with the uncertainties related to accreditation, the entire programme was put on hold in 2016. The MoA was due to expire in 2013 but was extended for a further two years because of the slow transfer rate of internal skills and capacity. The MoA had three broad components which had to be addressed through the implementation of capacity development and training, post-training assistance/transfer and institutional strengthening. While it has been indicated that these efforts were largely to establish NIPAM's credibility, they were also intended to, at the same time, develop in-house capacity.

During the same time frame, NIPAM also signed an MoA with Southern Business School to design, develop and deliver an MMDP. The programme was also registered with the SAQA at level 6 but due to similar challenges experienced with the SMDP was also stopped in 2016.

The main challenges with ensuring the sustainability of the partnerships with SPL and SBS were accreditation and registration which are related to the misperception that NIPAM is to provide its participants with degrees, much like a university or higher education institution. This credential-collecting mindset impacts on the motivation to attend NIPAM's training programmes. Although the NIPAM Act 2010 (Act 10 of 2010) explicitly states that the institution is mandated to conduct examinations and assessments to support the promotion, transfer and confirmation of probation across the public sector, the original intent of the government as per the cabinet decisions and founding documents was not to duplicate a degree-granting institution. Instead, its purpose was to serve as national

resource for public sector officials to improve performance and service delivery while enhancing their management and leadership capabilities. Unlike the higher education institutions, where students register and enrol on volitional bases for purposes of academic advancement, NIPAM's programmes are intended to be mandatory for those who wish to progress in the public sector.

Thus, although the period 2012-2013 was characterised by a huge financial outlays towards the curriculum development and delivery of the MMDP and the SMDP, their discontinuation have resulted in sunken costs.

In addition to the financial outlays during the period, there was also a commensurate increase in the use of resource persons for the delivery of tailor-made and demand-driven training as well as increases in administrative staffing. During the third year, however, the emphasis shifted to questioning the rationale behind the use of resource persons in delivering the services, including engagements with strategic partners (Namibia Institute of Public Administration and Management, 2014:10). An attempt was made to introduce a number of train-the-trainer programmes with partner institutions to grow and develop in-house capacity, largely driven by the newly appointed ED in 2014.

The idea of continuing with the strategic partnerships in 2016 while developing NIPAM's capacity through the training of trainers conducted by the partner institutions had to be sold to the GC of NIPAM. It appeared that the GC was at this stage preoccupied with meeting the institutional targets in accordance with the strategic and annual plan and may have missed the warning signs in view of addressing the strategic concerns. The issues which surfaced at the GC meetings pointed towards a preoccupation with the perceived overreliance on the resource pool at the expense of the poor utilisation of internal academic or training staff.

These concerns, rather than focusing on higher-order concerns which would support the repositioning of NIPAM through the refinement of its philosophy and service offering, accreditation and development of standards appeared to dominate the discussions and institutional documents (Namibia Institute of Public Administration and Management,

2014:13; Namibia Institute of Public Administration and Management, 2015:8). According to the internal auditors who have been appointed over the past five years, NIPAM has a prudential financial management system with adequate reporting and auditing mechanisms in place.

However, the current income in 2016/17 from training programmes of just barely N\$3 million remains significantly below target (Ernst & Young, 2017:4). Despite the N\$23 million received from the Office of the Prime Minister, there was no additional income although engagements have continued on future grant funding. Figure 5.7 contains figures taken from the NIPAM Annual Reports since 2010 and provides an overview of the income and loss per participant incurred over the years.

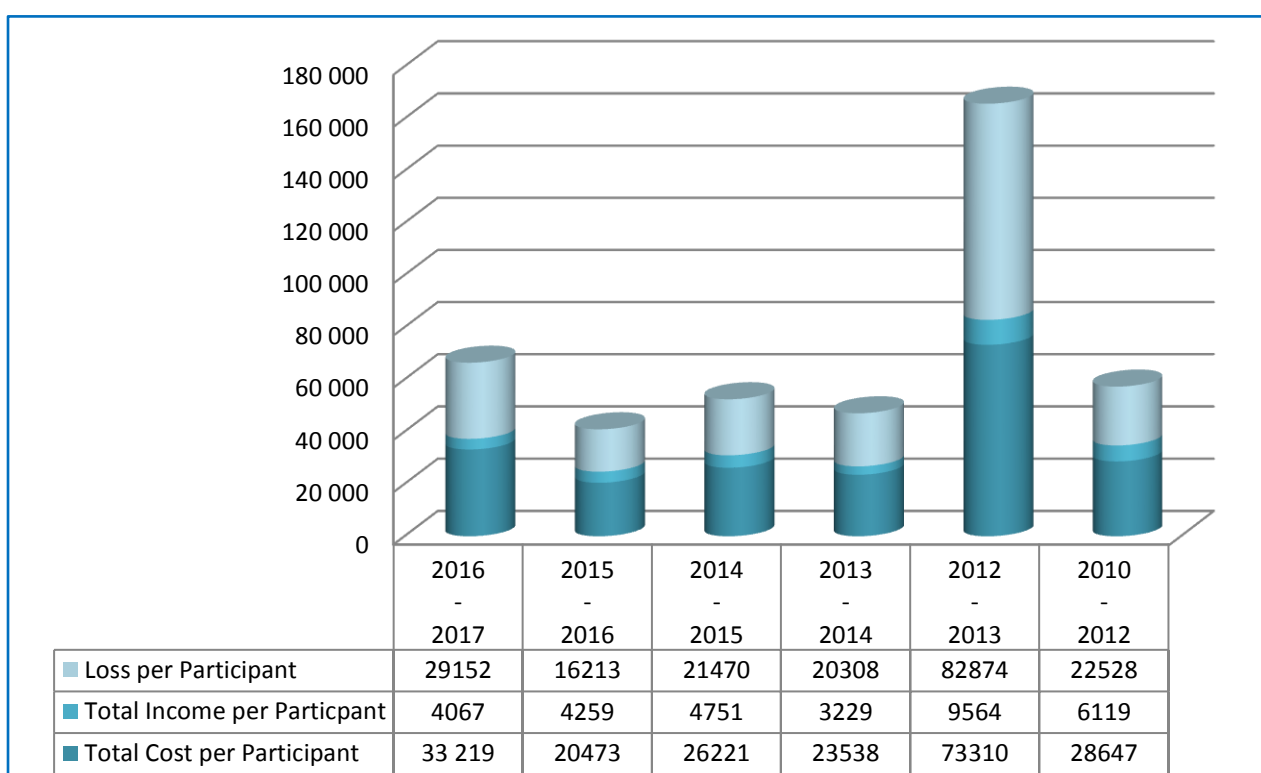


Figure 5.7: Income and Loss per Participant 2010-2017

Returning to the challenges around institutional performance and number of participants trained under the strategic theme of capacity development described earlier, the loss per participant, particularly in the year 2016/2017 (N\$33 219 per participant trained), provides

an indication as to the importance and urgency of providing a more suitable operational and financially viable model for the institution in view of sustainability.

5.5.4 Organisational Systems

Moving on to the business and technical infrastructure that NIPAM employees use on a day-to-day basis to accomplish their goals, it may be pointed out that the usual traditional management procedures exist largely on manual and less on electronic systems. NIPAM does not have efficient, integrated and functional management information systems capable of turning internal and external data into useful information. This makes it difficult for the regular reporting and monitoring of trends, participant numbers, individual and organisational performance and stakeholder needs or expectations (Ernst & Young, 2017:7).

The expectations for NIPAM's programmes to possess value are to be premised on a well-thought-through quality assurance system. Such a system would spell out the criteria and standards to be utilised in the identification of training needs, curriculum design, programme/materials development, assessment and certification fit for purpose across the public sector. Most importantly, the quality assurance system should address how NIPAM's services resonate with the need to provide the trajectory of a public servant in being confirmed, promoted or transferred across the public sector. The current status of quality assurance at NIPAM is unfortunately non-existent as the standards which were to be developed prior to the development of the current programmes are still not in place (Namibia Institute of Public Administration and Management, 2014:8).

At the same time, the system of managing participant enrolment figures, registration, assessment and eventually certification are manual, with various centres capturing the data electronically. This process is not only integrated across centres but is also time-consuming and cumbersome as different programmes ranging from Microsoft Excel to Microsoft Word are utilised, thereby compromising data quality and integrity. This process is costly and makes reporting difficult as work is sometimes duplicated across various centres (Ernst & Young, 2017:7).

With regard to financial management, NIPAM's budget is composed of both a capital and operating budget. The budget is based on a zero-based approach in which both costs and revenue are carefully scrutinised. The performance of the previous financial year is considered to complement the key performance indicators (KPIs) which should be achieved. The system for financial reporting uses ACCPAC, a scalar software solution which does not enable effective activity-based costing. This information is vital to trace unit costs of services and to assess their value towards the effective pricing of programmes and services. Furthermore, the human capital system which should contain employee information, performance and developmental data is not integrated with the payroll although there have been some attempts to address this in 2015.

The existing management of performance is a manual process and in terms of section 27 of the NIPAM Act, 2010 (Act 10 of 2010) read together with directives laid down under section 4 of the SOEG Act, 2006, the GC requires the ED and senior management to sign performance agreements with individual scorecards detailing the KPIs. The performance of the ED and senior management performance are reviewed on a quarterly basis and the consequent review is submitted to the GC. As is the case with introducing a performance-based culture, clear activities, targets and KPIs are specified at the outset. NIPAM is also required to provide OPM with quarterly reports and annual reports on its progress. Amongst the indicators are targets relating to the numbers of trainees or participants trained and the number of courses or programmes developed. The internal audits have confirmed the need to streamline processes and procedures so that reporting is completed on time and procurement is simplified. Issues pertaining to the accessibility to donor funding was mentioned in 2016 and recommendations were made to implement competitive costing of programmes and courses (Ernst & Young, 2017:5).

With this background, and with many of NIPAM's rudimentary systems being manually driven, it illustrates the compounded challenges the institute is currently facing. In terms of roles and responsibilities, the GC is tasked with the responsibility of information communication and technology (ICT) governance of NIPAM. Its management and implementation is further delegated to management and in particular the director of information. Information communication and technology (ICT) governance is the

framework that supports effective and efficient management of resources which will be migrated to an ICT platform to facilitate the achievement of NIPAM's strategic objectives. The ICT governance framework includes the development and implementation of an ICT governance charter and related policies. These policies should provide the context for NIPAM to function on an ICT platform which is resilient and agile enough to adapt the strategic needs and similarly protected from risks it faces. One of the systems which will provide the required automation is an integrated information management system (IIMS). One of the prerequisites for implementing the IIMS is to map the institute's current processes. This has been quite challenging and for many, a painstaking process given the absence of operational policies and integrated management information systems to drive change.

5.5.5 Organisational Culture

The core values of NIPAM are underpinned by the core values of responsiveness, integrity, equality and innovation. As described in the foregoing sections, since its launch in 2011, NIPAM has been experiencing a number of tumultuous leadership episodes in terms of its top leadership and has consequently received a lot of negative publicity. Many of the articles focus on the volatility of the institution in terms of changes of the ED almost annually since its inception in 2011 (Informante, 2013:12; Namibia Institute of Public Administration and Management, 2013:8; *The Windhoek Observer*, 2014:6; New Era, 2015:5; Confidente, 2016:2). With each of these leadership eras, the GC believed that the biggest challenge facing the institution was the presence of a leader who could turn things around.

While this may have been the case, one of the reports which was commissioned by the GC to focus discussions on NIPAM's future strategy after its 2015 mid-term review observed that:

NIPAM's organisational culture may be described as highly toxic, with a number of employees portraying a sense of entitlement and an aversion to any form of growth (Visions Consulting, 2015:12).

5.5.6 Organisational Competencies

Throughout the NIPAM's five-year lifespan, there have been questions about the function such a body was to fulfil and whether NIPAM has the right organisational model to achieve it. Hence, the organisation's competencies reflect the organisation's ability to do its work. These competencies are also reflected in the performance of the organisation. In terms of organisational competencies, there is an emerging challenge which is related to the tenure of the GC members who, as previously indicated, occupy a three-year term. As time goes on, NIPAM might appoint members to the GC who may not necessarily appreciate the original intent of the institute, given their backgrounds. As such, new members may steer it in a different direction that could easily compromise the mandate for which the institute was created, which is to develop capacity in the public sector and not to generate profit as is the case with other PEs.

Further down the organisational ladder, in terms of the recruitment, staffing and capacity of existing staff, there seems to be a mismatch in terms of the staff competencies to the organisational structure. The issue of the quality of staff and their capability goes back to the inception and transition phase of NIPAM from the OPM Department to a fully fledged state-owned enterprise in 2011 which required that the existing incumbents who were seconded to the OPM Department were translated into their new roles and functions within the new NIPAM. To this end, there are two views which have been advanced throughout NIPAM's lifecycle. The one view sees NIPAM staff as being highly qualified in their respective fields, with the cream of the OPM crop being selected to join NIPAM. This view is premised on the recruitment model which was at the time aligned with the public service recruitment practices of sourcing faculty/academic and training staff to reflect a desire to bridge the practical world of government with the more theoretically minded academia. The other view is one expressing concerns about the staff, the current skills and the culture, which in the previous section is revealed as a recurrently problematic issue, featuring to a lesser or greater degree in most reviews of institutional capability (*The Windhoek Observer*, 2014:5).

Many of the concerns relate to the imbalance of staff with more administrative staff compared to the core training staff. This has resulted in a ratio of 1:10. In addition, the NIPAM's high compensation packages may contribute to the growing sense of entitlement and perception of increased self-worth amongst the staff. The poor work ethic and absence of a robust and working performance measurement system led to staff feeling demoralised, with instances of reports of indiscipline, lack of ethics and professionalism and antagonism (Visions Consulting, 2015:13; Namibia Institute of Public Administration and Management, 2014:15).

The institute received negative publicity which further deteriorated its position. Amongst these reports are perceptions and views linked to the NIPAM leadership in terms of its recruitment of managers and training staff in 2012. According to an article in a local newspaper,

Some of these managers and trainers allegedly lack the relevant experience in their fields (which indicate) that a number of unqualified people...occupy jobs in which they cannot perform. As a result, NIPAM has become heavily reliant on the use of external consultants because of a lack of internal capacity to deliver on its mandate (*The Windhoek Observer*, 2014:12).

One of the former EDs has, during his tenure, openly spoken about NIPAM's weak institutional capacity:

When I first joined NIPAM I needed to understand the mandate of the institution and the expectations of Government. Now that I do, I see that we definitely need to reshuffle or reorganise the leadership. NIPAM needs to attract people that the market believes in and sees value in, and that this may affect the current composition of the team (*The Windhoek Observer*, 2014:12).

In terms of advancing the core functions of NIPAM, as indicated in the internal audit reports, there have been ongoing concerns that the staff and management are not suited for their positions (Ernst & Young, 2017:5). Some of the concerns relate to the perception that there is little understanding of andragogical content knowledge and of the struggle

with how to transform and represent the concepts and ideas in ways that make sense to the participants attending training.

Reinforcing this perceived lack of skills is the flow of vital information and work across the institution which is not expeditious. This very often leads to poor organisational learning, feedback and responsiveness and the inability to deal with stakeholder challenges who are often detached from many of the policy decisions facing the institution. The weak relationships with major stakeholders, especially with the rest of the public sector, impact negatively on the programme design, delivery and evaluation. The current limited emphasis on short duration courses and promotion of a citizen- and customer-centric culture is also not well articulated and integrated in the current programmes.

5.6 Summary

This chapter documented the case of the NIPAM by providing an overview of its past and present context. As part of the chapter, a brief description of Namibia in terms of its political, economic, social, technological, legal and environmental context is also considered. An overview of the public sector was provided, while highlighting the country's national development imperatives and the various role players involved in advancing the national development agenda and human resource strategy for the country. Following this was a description of the various role players involved in technical vocational education and training and the need for qualified and competent human resources – not only across the country but also in the public sector.

The case of the NIPAM followed, providing an overview of the same aspects which were investigated across the three MDIs in chapter four. Thus, the governance and institutional setup, operational strategy, systems, culture and competencies were documented, providing a brief history as well as an overview of the institution in its current state. The next chapter applies the normative model, the ALO Model of Learning Governance developed in chapter four to NIPAM with the intention of providing further insights into shaping its future and repositioning it as an MDI in the best interests of the Namibian public sector.

Chapter 6: A Public Sector Model of Governance, Management and Leadership Development for Namibia

There's a fundamental distinction between strategy and operational effectiveness. Strategy is about making choices, trade-offs; it's about deliberately choosing to be different. Operational effectiveness is about things that you really shouldn't have to make choices on; it's about what's good for everybody and about what every business should be doing ... The essence of strategy is choosing what not to do (Porter, 1996:70).

6.1 Introduction

This study has been focusing on a number of key aspects in relation to governance, management and leadership development across Commonwealth management development institutions (MDIs). There have been an equal number of key challenges repeatedly identified in both the literature and the analysis of the multiple cases (Chapter 3). One of the most important cross-cutting themes identified is that MDIs should reposition themselves to the challenge of their respective governments' reform strategies in line with their governance and institutional arrangements. Thus, MDIs should prioritise the alignment of their respective strategies, organisational structures, systems, staff, skills, culture and values in order to adhere to their mandates and achieve their objectives. This element has been incorporated in the formulation of a normative model of governance, management and leadership development (Chapter 4) for MDIs.

The previous chapter was a description of the Namibian case which depicts the public sector education training and development environment, role players and current challenges (Chapter five). The chapter featured the Namibia Institute of Public Administration and Management (NIPAM) as the Namibian government's public service training institute or MDI. The purpose of the current chapter is to apply the normative model developed in chapter four to the NIPAM in order to assess, amongst other (micro-level) institutional aspects, whether the broader alignment challenges of the high-level (macro-level) reform objectives to the MDI's goals have been defined.

6.2 Chapter Objectives and Outline

The fifth question in this study was: How does the current institutional setup in Namibia meet the requirements of the ALO Model of Learning Governance? This question seeks to address the corresponding research objective of applying the ALO Model of Learning Governance to the Namibian case outlined in chapter five. The application of the model highlights the key aspects and opportunities to reposition the NIPAM as an MDI. Therefore, this chapter may be seen as the most significant part of the study since the research questions, sub-questions and objectives have been addressed and it moves towards formulating recommendations for the NIPAM, the public sector of Namibia and, broadly, for other MDIs across the Commonwealth.

6.3 Application of the Normative Model to the Namibia Institute of Public Administration and Management

The use of the case study approach was selected for the robustness of its design and because it makes provision for the establishment of boundaries (Yin, 2009:32). This includes the development of propositions (Yin, 2009:32, Miles & Huberman, 1994:45), the use of a conceptual framework (Miles & Huberman, 1994:45), and, finally, the systematic and logical manner of linking the data to the research propositions (Yin, 2009:33). Since propositions form the basis for scientific research, it follows that the more a study contains specific propositions, the more it will address aspects of internal and external validity and remain within feasible limits (Baxter & Jack, 2008:531). There are a number of propositions pertaining to this study which have emerged through the documentation and analysis of the case institutions documented in chapter three. The development of the ALO Model of Learning Governance as applicable to NIPAM accordingly requires testing through the following propositions:

Proposition 1: *NIPAM is a capable institution with a well-defined governance structure, clear vision, mission and strategic plan which are implemented by capable staff who have been properly selected, recruited and developed to fulfil its mandate;*

Proposition 2: *The organisational structure of NIPAM is adaptive and flexible, yet has well-integrated systems;*

Proposition 3: *NIPAM's services are responsive and are based on consistent standards which are delivered across integrated systems to meet the clientele's expectations;*

Proposition 4: *The leadership of NIPAM is innovative and believes in embracing shared values to promote integration and cohesion;*

Proposition 5: *The staff and leadership at NIPAM understand the importance of a collaborative culture and promote it;*

Proposition 6: *NIPAM has a well-defined learning governance strategy which strengthens its mandate, role and expectations of which funding is a key element.*

6.3.1 The Namibia Institute of Public Administration and Management as a Capable Institution

The first proposition, "NIPAM is a capable institution with a well-defined governance structure, clear vision, mission and a strategic plan which is implemented by capable staff who have been properly selected, recruited and developed to fulfil its mandate" is related to four key aspects. These are described in terms of good corporate governance, the vision, the mission, the strategic plan and the staff.

6.3.1.1 Good Corporate Governance

In terms of assessing NIPAM and its institutional setup and governance arrangements, it is necessary to consider a number of existing challenges which were highlighted in chapter five. The NIPAM Act, 2010 (Act 10 of 2010), in sections 7 and 16 provides for the composition of both the GC and TDB. These two sections prescribe which institutions should nominate persons for appointment as members of the GC and the TDB. Similarly, Section 26 (1) relates to the appointment of the ED by the GC with the concurrence of the prime minister, but according to section 7 (2) (b) the ED is an ex officio member of the Council. Section 14 (4) directs that the ED is an ex officio member of any committee established by the Council.

Regarding the membership of the TDB, sections 16 (2) (a) and (b) of the NIPAM Act, 2010 (Act 10 of 2010) establish the ED as the Chairperson and the Deputy ED is the Vice

Chairperson of the TDB while section 16 (2) (d) and (e) directs that a staff member from senior management and a training specialist from the training staff of NIPAM should be appointed as substantive members of the TDB. Similarly, under section 16 (2) (c), members of the Council appointed in terms of section 7 (2) (i) are automatically members of the TDB. These issues, from a legal and good corporate governance perspective are relevant. More specifically, unless the process of appointing both the GC members and the TDB is handled well, the nominees from the various institutions as specified in the Act may not necessarily have the required competencies to constitute a diverse and well-functioning GC and TDB. These competencies pertain to financial acumen, law, business, and public sector and capacity development experience relevant to furthering the core function and mandate of NIPAM.

Equally, in terms of good governance, the ED ought not to be a member but an attendee of the Audit Committee, Remuneration Committee or any other Committee established by the GC. Based on the principle of separation of powers coupled with the respect of hierarchy, the TDB is vested with the core business of NIPAM and specifically the superintendence of training, consultancy and research activities. To carry out the above functions, the ED is the head of training and the accounting officer as per section 26 (2) (b). Based on this sub-section alone, the fact that the ED is the Chairperson of the TDB has the potential to render it ineffective. This may be so, given the amount of power concentrated in one person. It goes without saying that the ED will sign submissions, chair meetings, implement resolutions and account to the same entity. The members of the GC who appoint the ED are also members of the TDB.

Therefore, the TDB meetings chaired by the ED do not resonate well with good governance or augur well in terms of the separation of powers. By the same token, the TDB oversees the core functions of NIPAM, namely training, consultancy and research. The fact that the same NIPAM staff who carry out training, consultancy and research are appointable by law as members of the TDB also does not support good corporate governance practices or assure the independence of the TDB. The same logic also applies to the fact that the Deputy ED is also the Vice Chairperson of the TDB.

Given this analysis with regard to good corporate governance practices, there is some work which needs to be done to review the current Act and amend it to provide a clear separation of powers, responsibilities and accountability. The next section speaks to NIPAM being a capable institution and analyses its vision and mission.

6.3.1.2 Vision and Mission

From the three case studies on the Commonwealth countries and their respective MDIs as well as the literature review, it is evident that an MDI should have a clear, well-articulated vision and mission. These are required to provide a roadmap for the institution and should also be aligned with the needs and requirements of government, which include a justification for the investment. Both the vision and the mission should be well understood across both the organisation and the public sector it is deemed to serve.

Regarding the NIPAM vision, which holds that the organisation seeks to be “[a] world-class management development institute that catalyses the transformation of the Namibian Public Sector into a developmental and entrepreneurial system” (Republic of Namibia, 2010:3), the critique from several stakeholders who do not understand this vision is that it is pitched at a very high and strategic level by providing a clear idea of what it aspires to become. Ironically, this vision expresses NIPAM’s intended capabilities by providing assurance to its stakeholders of its preparedness to serve their cause.

By the same token, the mission statement, namely “[t]o transform the Public Sector of Namibia into an efficient, effective and accountable system through capacity development, consulting and research, operational excellence, capacity development evaluation, and strategic partnerships”, appears vague, given that the aims are very abstract. This makes it very difficult to measure what NIPAM purports to achieve. A mission statement is expected to perform a number of integrated functions required by various stakeholders over a long period. The other challenge is that it does not explicitly identify its key stakeholders. Although it indicates the desire to transform the public sector of Namibia, the value propositions that it communicates do not necessarily provide stakeholders with its unique selling proposition. This is particularly the case for how NIPAM’s services

differentiate from other training and service providers. This absence of an institutional philosophy coupled with a lack of clear and consistent brand identity creates images of inconsistency in the minds of stakeholders. The absence of a commonly adopted brand, which relates to the strategic intent of NIPAM, negatively affects its operational philosophy and positioning.

One participant commented:

There is definitely a perception problem; it is not knowing what NIPAM is for, whom it is for and why you would even attend the training they offer. The certificates are not even worth the paper they are printed on, as they are not even recognised by the NQA or any university. I have even tried to apply for promotion posts in government but I might as well not have attached the certificate because it is not taken seriously (Personal Interview, 2017).

These sentiments have bearing on both the strategic and operational strategy of NIPAM. Despite section 5 (b) of the Act articulating the principal object of the institute, which is to address the competencies required for a high-performing public sector, its alignment and operationalisation do not appear to be addressed. Part of the reason for this is the absence of standards, both for the public sector and within the institution. This will be addressed in the sections on the ALO model dealing with integrated systems and consistent standards. These are related to the financial status and funding of NIPAM. While government in general has developed a policy stance on funding programmes at NIPAM, section 6.1.3 of the Act provides a more specific stance and states that “All O/M/As & RCs are to allocate at least 20% of their wage bill for T&D purposes, and 25% of that allocation is to be utilised for NIPAM courses” (Office of the Prime Minister, 2012:23). Although this is commonly accepted in principle, the operationalisation of chapter six pertaining to funding of NIPAM as per the Human Resource Development Policy for Accelerated Service Delivery in the Public Service of Namibia (2012) under the DPSM: OPM remains a challenge.

This challenge is further related to Sections 6 (e) and 31 (3) of the NIPAM Act 2010 (Act 10 of 2010) which respectively state that the NIPAM is to “provide training, operational research and capacity evaluation services and facilities to public servants and charge

fees” and that “[t]he Council, after consultation with the board, determines the fees payable by a public servant, any person, client, organisation or beneficiary” (Republic of Namibia, 2010:12).

Seen from an institutional performance perspective, the current performance of NIPAM is unjustifiable based on the past and current number of participants trained. Given that NIPAM derives its funding from government, under the budget vote of the Office of the Prime Minister, the revenue generated is far less than the 45% that it ought to generate. Coupled with the decline in public funding and the current economic crisis, it is anticipated that government may provide less funding in future. There is thus a strong imperative to intensify efforts to revisit the current financial model and assess opportunities to collaborate with other MDIs and similar institutions. This is also confirmed by the first Delphi round conducted to validate the ALO Model of Learning Governance.

Figure 6.1 below provides a breakdown of responses taken from the first Delphi consultation which gives additional insight into the strategic concerns, followed by a brief write-up on each of them.

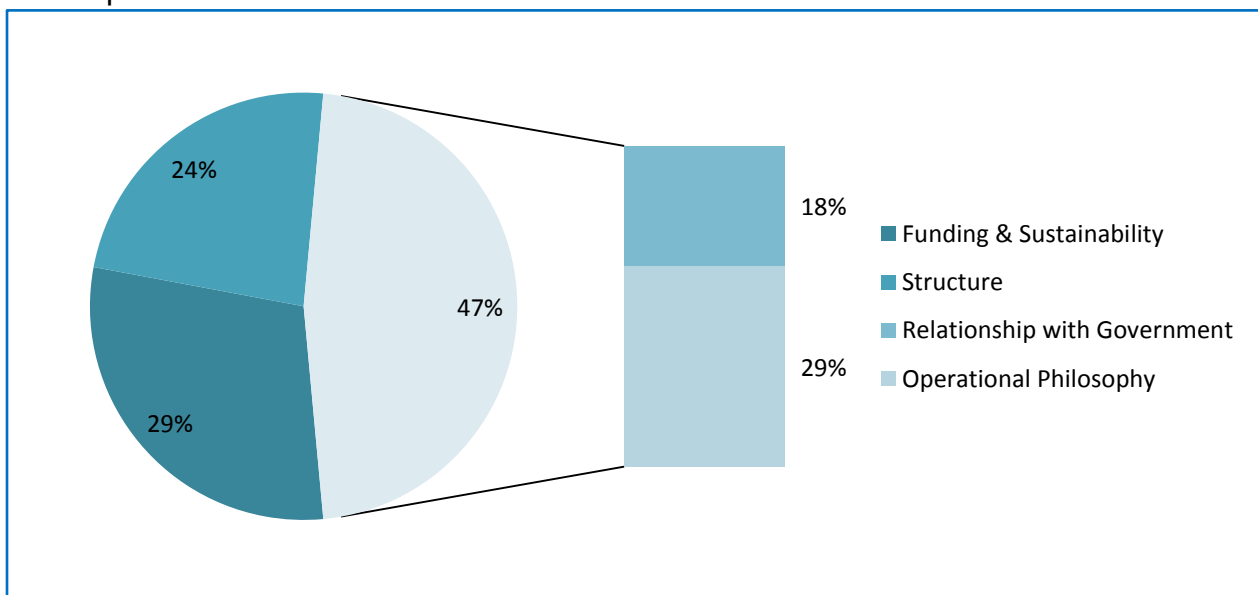


Figure 6.1: NIPAM's Strategic Issues (First Delphi round)

Presented with the issues and the ALO model, the members of the Delphi panel in the first round provided a number of responses which confirmed and validated the issues and

concerns raised in the case study of NIPAM detailed in chapter 5. Forty-seven per cent of the responses were consistent with the challenge of the institute's positioning, notably NIPAM's relationship with the government (18%), while 29% felt that NIPAM's operational philosophy was vague, particularly in terms of its use of partners, consultants and resource persons. Twenty-four per cent felt that the structure was not optimal, given that the current structure is likely to promote working in silos – especially as the institute is set up to cater for the public sector segments. Twenty-nine per cent expressed concern at the issues around the funding model and sustainability of NIPAM in light of the performance and minimal numbers trained over the years.

A vacuum therefore exists in view of the absence of regulations, which are not in place to ensure the financial sustainability and costing model of NIPAM in future. In addition to the limitations in the legislative framework, there are systemic and extraneous challenges with regard to NIPAM's role in view of improving administrative capacity which should be addressed to ensure that NIPAM meets its mandate.

In particular, Section 5 (b) of the NIPAM Act 2010 (Act 10 of 2010) specifies that NIPAM should “conduct such examinations or tests as necessary as a qualification for the appointment, promotion or transfer of persons in or to the public service”, while Section 17 (d) compels NIPAM to “determine the norms and standards for the award of qualifications and accreditation for approval from the NQA or other Accreditation bodies”. In addition, Section 31 (2) (a) charges NIPAM with providing the guidelines to “prescribe minimum eligibility requirements for the registration and attending or course, or cancellation of registration”. The Act continues to express this by emphasising the next section, Section 32 (1), which provides NIPAM with the status to “confer any certificate or diploma in training as may be necessary to confer”. These sections in the Act are not at the time of the writing of this dissertation yet operationalised and have serious ramifications for NIPAM's positioning, capability and role in the Namibian public sector. Continuing with the analysis of NIPAM as a capable institution, the high-level statements are discussed next.

6.3.1.3 The Strategic Plan and Strategic Themes

Following the challenges highlighted in the NIPAM vision and mission, the alignment of the NIPAM Strategic Plan with its structure, systems, staff and staff competencies appears to be one of the key concerns about NIPAM and emerged as a key theme in chapter five. It is believed that the alignment of the strategic plan and the business plan with these elements should, if done correctly, contribute towards its success and optimal organisational performance. Both the strategic and annual plans should ideally be monitored and evaluated consistently against the set organisational goals. This principle may go a long way towards the identification of needs and capabilities required to support the strategic objectives and the assurance that the investment in capacity development are aligned with the needs of the public sector.

In this regard, the five strategic themes described in chapter five all have corresponding objectives which are generally aligned with the NIPAM mission. The initial phase establishing any institution usually begins with the conceptualisation of the goals and possible ways to fulfil them. When Cabinet attributed the poor service delivery rates to poorly defined goals and an absence of unified training in 2000, the expectation of the newly launched MDI was to deliver on these unmet needs. Going on to how this relates to the NIPAM Act 2010 (Act 10 of 2010), the major functions of the institute are to develop capacity across the public service so that public servants can deliver services efficiently and effectively. Here, even the terminology is problematic. The term public service, for example, is broadly defined but is interpreted differently across the Namibian public sector. As such, for some time, many believed that NIPAM's role and services were only applicable to central government and excluded LAs and PEs.

Relating these services to its systems, NIPAM is also expected to improve its internal operations, processes and procedures so that it is well capacitated to “develop a new generation of holistic managers with capacity to manage public policies, strategies and projects in a dynamic and complex environment” (Republic of Namibia, 2010:6). Realising this in the absence of shared standards and systems will be very difficult to achieve.

Another key function outlined in NIPAM's strategic plan is for the institute to conduct consultancy and research in areas of public administration and management, document the good practices and stories of success and failure, and create a databank of such practices for public sector capacity building. Relatedly, and finally, NIPAM is also expected to establish a think tank for the public sector of Namibia by organising debates, workshops or seminars on topics related to public administration and management. Unfortunately, over the seven years since its inception, the NIPAM has not been very visible, often being notified at the last minute to attend or in many cases being sidelined when high-level national seminars, conferences and dialogues are held.

Thus, the five strategic objectives which are stated in the NIPAM plan appear to include the critical needs NIPAM is expected to address and the values it intends to popularise across the public sector. The objectives, however, are not well defined in terms of how they should be measured against the development targets and agenda. Currently, NIPAM has only focused on the training function, paying less attention to the other major functions. In particular, there is a strong emphasis on training for numbers – a bias toward the previous massification approach to training used by the South African NSG and other MDIs in their infancy. Therefore, there is a need for NIPAM to operate as a fully fledged MDI and to pay attention to all four of its major functions. Talking about this issue, an interviewee said:

I have yet to see a legitimate piece of research work that NIPAM has ever conducted. The research itself is questionable, given that even the research questions crafted, the design of the methodology does not particularly follow any defined set of research practice. There is a need to involve researchers from academia and not only officials from the public service so that there is a balance of practical knowledge, informed by academia. In the same vein, the curricula should also be current and be informed by the action research findings. I don't believe this is done at all (Personal Interview, 2017).

6.3.1.4 Competent Staff

A capable institution requires competent staff. In this regard, three emerging themes have been identified at NIPAM. These refer to the recruitment, management and development of NIPAM staff. For one, qualified and competent staff are the most valuable resource in any institution. The ability of NIPAM to fulfil and perform according to its role and mandate is dependent on its ability to recruit, select, appoint, manage and develop the right people. It is therefore critical to utilise and implement suitable mechanisms to recruit and retain qualified staff with the necessary competencies. With the definition of competencies referring to the knowledge, skills and abilities of both individuals and the institution, the competences of the MDI refer to what the institution is known for, what makes it distinctive and what it does best (Peters & Waterman, 1982:65).

An MDI is expected to function in a complex environment which requires specialised competencies. Many studies have illustrated that it is essential to have the right people with the right competencies to assure the success of an institution (Lopes et al., 2002:32; Afegbua & Adejuwon, 2012:43). Specific competencies related to the management of strategic partnerships, resource persons and NIPAM's relevance are crucial to the success of an MDI. Ongoing training for the internal staff at an MDI should provide the principal understanding of how a unique public sector training institution is to fulfil its mandate (Kiggundu, 1991:19; Afegbua & Adejuwon, 2012:40; Haruna & Kannae, 2013:15).

With regard to the internal staff development aspects, the capacity and continuous professional development of staff is the theme cited as a critical factor for success. Some researchers have specifically mentioned the need for MDIs to be well qualified, with staff possessing a master's degree as a minimum requirement, while others have focused on the experience in the public sector (Kiggundu, 1991:21). In devising and setting out these entry-level requirements, the institution may consider nurturing and developing the existing staff through the alignment of its strategic objectives with the prioritisation of capacity development to meet these objectives. These initiatives may also contribute towards the development and maintenance of staff morale and motivation.

It appears, however, that the current staffing situation at NIPAM has been affected by the various changes in leadership, entailing a high turnover each time there is a new institutional head or ED. New staff who then take up positions are not necessarily given an appropriate and full orientation and induction, which correspondingly results in clashing notions of the type of institution NIPAM is and should be. These challenges also include ideas that the institute should function according to a matrix structure with administrative staff also conducting training in their respective fields. It is therefore submitted that an MDI's employees comprising people with both public sector, technical knowledge and experience is critical to achieve success. Similarly, a balance of prior experience in the public sector and capacity development experience may be characterised as another aspect to be considered in alignment with the organisational structure and strategy.

Therefore, the staff of an MDI, regardless of whether they are administrative or training staff, should be balanced, cooperative and cross-functional. They should also be appointed on a full-time basis. Their remuneration should be commensurate with performance and operationalised through the adoption of a sound and integrated performance management system. In addition, the decision makers/directors should be empowered to make quick and effective decisions. The availability of these capabilities or their acquisition can help achieve the success of an MDI. From the analysis, it appears that quite a large number of the NIPAM staff are fledglings despite possessing the necessary public service experience in terms of the number of years served. Many of them may not necessarily have the requisite knowledge, skills and abilities to manage and deliver on the institution's fourfold mandate of providing training, research, consultancy or conducting capacity evaluation. Coupled with an absence of internal policies, systems and consistent procedures, the current working environment at NIPAM has been described as "a breeding ground for an unhealthy, toxic organisational culture which is not conducive to growth" (Personal Interview, 2017).

Training for internal staff should therefore encompass the philosophy of the MDI, its aim towards supporting government's transformation and reform agenda, public sector practices and processes, the use of ICT for improved service delivery, and, importantly, the changing role of strengthening good governance through the development of sound

management and leadership skills. The induction and orientation programmes for new staff members at NIPAM do not adhere to a particular philosophy. By the same token, the NIPAM brand and its documents from the institutional profile to its website do not appear to convey the same message of what it does, how it goes about doing what it does and with whom it collaborates and to whom it provides its services.

There are mixed sentiments about NIPAM's current staff complement. In some reports, the institution has been praised for employing highly qualified trainers, while others have questioned the capacity of NIPAM to deliver certain services. However, in terms of the mandate and purpose of the institution, it is clear that NIPAM has the necessary human resources to tackle any assignment, given its wider pool of human resources from which it draws and the freedom granted to it by the Act. It therefore follows that for the internal staff, the prioritisation of training and development should take precedence and be planned as part of the strategic and annual plan. This should be done by utilising the requisite time, money and resources provided during the coming financial year. This will help NIPAM counter some of the questions around the competencies and capacity of the institution.

The competency of NIPAM's management to advance the NIPAM's objectives in support of the development of political, interpersonal and technical skills across the public sector is an urgent priority. Ideally, all NIPAM staff, but specifically those serving and occupying positions at executive level, should have experience with the design, development and implementation of capacity development programmes and interventions. They should also have relevant public sector experience and sound managerial and leadership capacity.

Finally, an integrated plan for the management of the training function, which includes aspects of organisational, strategic, business process, project management, ICT, human resources, leadership and communication competences should be aligned with the Public Service Human Resource Development Plan and the national training strategy to be effective. This should occur against the backdrop of a sound understanding of public sector practices, consultancy and action research.

6.3.2 Adaptive Organisational Design

The second proposition, “The organisational structure of NIPAM is adaptive and flexible, yet has well-integrated systems”, includes assessing whether the structure is suitable for the functioning of the institute. This proposition rests on the premise that the MDI has competent staff and integrated systems. Overall, there seems to be some evidence to indicate that the skills of staff, the availability of systems and the MDI’s processes are key considerations in determining NIPAM’s success. The structure provides a setup which provides an enabling environment and at the same time adapts to the external characteristics of an organisation.

One can mention commonly cited structural dimensions as centralisation, specialisation, standardisation, formalisation, hierarchical levels and span of control. This study focuses on aspects pertaining to centralisation, specialisation and formalisation, which are believed to be adequate for assessing the relationships in the structure of the MDI to the offering of MDIs. In addition, the size of the organisation and the preoccupation of the top leadership plays a critical role in terms of how services are centralised or decentralised. When decisions are driven from the top, an organisation is referred to as centralised, whereas in decentralised organisations, decisions are delegated to staff at lower levels.

In the case of NIPAM, its direction refers to the extent to which decisions are controlled by the GC and the TDB. On the one hand, tight control over decisions can ensure that the implementation of capacity development interventions is consistent with the organisation’s goals and conflicts can be resolved efficiently. On the other hand, centralisation restrains the innovativeness of the organisation and may restrain collaboration with stakeholders. However, from the literature review and the case studies, it appears that organisations with high levels of centralisation mark the preferred structure of MDIs in contrast to a decentralised structure of MDIs.

Specialisation refers to the extent to which tasks are subdivided into separate jobs in an organisation. If specialisation is extensive, it is likely for each staff member to perform a

narrow range of works. The current systems might be more suitable for organisations with distinct and specialised functions or tasks. It is believed that integrated systems may be more useful in organisations where operations and tasks are explicitly defined. The reason is that the systems enforce a disciplined behaviour for adopting organisations in such a way that procedures are clear. Therefore, organisations with high levels of specialisation may favour integrated programmes in contrast to less specialised organisations.

The level of formalisation to standardise work processes and documentation is also key to enhancing alignment with the strategy and an appropriate organisational design. Thus, formalisation is the degree to which rules and procedures are clearly documented and understood by all staff. This is similar to and dovetails with aspects of specialisation where the operations and tasks are unambiguously detailed and followed in the interest of integration. On advancing the principles of integration, the number and frequency of meetings held to discuss strategic as opposed to operational issues, the level of staff typically participating in those meetings, the nature of the discussions, and whether the end result had been documented are of importance.

Relating this to NIPAM, the case study has highlighted aspects which demonstrate the institution's overwhelming concern with operational issues and the adoption of a structure that is not adaptive but also not conducive to experimentation and innovation. The current structure is top-heavy in supporting a broad, flat management structure, outnumbering the lower levels of operational staff by a ratio of 3:1 (management versus operational staff). Specifically, there are too many positions of training managers with similar roles and conflicting responsibilities which should be streamlined in terms of functions as opposed to the current categorisation which is done according to sector. Hence, a considerable amount of costs can be saved and organisational efficiency can be increased.

Little or no time is currently set aside for considering strategic issues until the imminent issue of sustainability becomes unavoidable. The most obvious finding to emerge from the analysis is that it appears that a crisis makes learning not only necessary, but also possible. In other words, a crisis may bring what had previously been individual learning to

the fore and allow organisational members to arrive at shared assumptions and a common understanding of organisational processes.

The size of the organisation dictates how efficiently and effectively it will be run. This can be assessed using the size of the employee force, as well as the revenue generated in view of institutional performance. Larger organisations may have more requirements and a larger need for sophisticated staff comprising more professional staff. Their organisation complements are comprised of larger departments and integrated systems than smaller organisations. With NIPAM's staff complement remaining true to its intention of being a lean but specialised institution of professional staff, it remains a small institution but currently experiences challenges with efficiency and effectiveness. This challenge is linked to the model of insourcing and supplementing the smaller NIPAM team of professionals with more diverse and specialised professionals from the resource pool. Currently, there is a perception that everything can and should be done in-house with supplementary capacity coming from the public service mostly. This idea, given the absence of systems and open, transparent procedures, is a challenge to implement with criteria of sourcing resource pool members changing from day to day.

Finally, considering the role of the human capital office as central to the solution of the organisational structure, it must be stated that the discipline of human capital management, and specifically organisational development, has grown in importance over time. The role of this office in many best practice institutions has evolved from an office responsible for paper-pushing and administration to that of an innovative business partner.

Similarly, the human capital office is required to plan and implement not only human capital strategies across the organisation but also to align operations with the structure in identifying capacity gaps for effective and efficient operations. In successful MDIs, the head of human capital must be able to build strong relationships with their executive peers, must behave as a strategic partner of the business, and be able to align the human capital complement with strategic priorities.

As indicated in chapter five, the Human Capital Office at NIPAM is housed under the Administration and Finance Centre and its role comprises the systematic management of all staff including those of executive-level leaders that generally report directly to the ED. The head of human capital is a manager who, in turn, reports to the director of finance and administration. The disjoint in the operations has to do with the very tasks and functions with which the office is preoccupied. Briefly explained, the NIPAM human capital office is still very much an operational unit which prepares and processes human capital documents to ensure compliance with audits, instead of positioning itself to assist NIPAM with its core business and serving as a business partner the way it ought to.

6.3.2.1 Integrated Systems

The aspect of integrated systems, as introduced in this section, refers to the formal and informal procedures and systems that underpin the operational strategy of an organisation and its structure (Peters & Waterman, 1982:43). To this end, formal systems are described to include the broad external and internal systems to manage, monitor and evaluate aspects pertaining to the strategic plan, quality, finance, human resources, logistics/infrastructure, communication and the management of clientele and their expectations.

Returning to NIPAM's inception in 2011, prior to embarking on this integrated systems thinking for and towards institutional systems integration, the situation at the time on the existing systems and processes on the ground is to be carefully evaluated to determine anticipated problems that such an MDI could encounter. From the literature and the case studies, it is evident that the more complex the organisation, the higher the amount of technical and organisational efforts are required in developing systems. Hence, it is crucial for organisations to first overcome the problems arising from the existing systems and processes before migrating their systems and processes towards integrated and IT-based solutions. Moreover, the completeness, compatibility, usability and integrity of the current systems should be evaluated and the current infrastructure should be upgraded.

As part of the integration of systems, it is inevitable that the existing business processes are identified, documented, evaluated and improved to evolve into an improved system. Usually, extensive re-engineering efforts are necessary before migrating to an online system. Hence, the processes that require improvement should be identified first and the necessary adjustments should be made prior to the development and implementation of an integrated system. Also, rather than assigning permanent roles to administrative officers, the rotation system of duties should be introduced which will reduce the potential of conflicts amongst the workforce. By doing this, the work process and flow would become more challenging and be more interesting.

The issues around the quality of both the services and the systems at NIPAM have, since its inception, never been resolved. For example, the core purpose for NIPAM's existence in terms of supporting and operationalising the vertical and horizontal mobility across the public sector has never taken off. Coupled with this is a cumbersome, manually driven application and registration process which has never been fully developed.

Given the three training centres, each follows their own makeshift system of capturing data. There is no central repository which is integrated with any of the other systems, such as the administration, human capital and finance systems. Furthermore, the system which invoices participants is separate from the registration system while the tools which are utilised within the system, for example the attendance register, is also manually generated and separate. Hence, the reconciliation of data on participants, their attendance, assessments evaluation of skills transfer and final certification is highly fragmented.

As indicated in the foregoing paragraph, one of the solutions for NIPAM to assist the development of public sector management and leadership competencies since NIPAM's inception was the development of common norms and standards for assessment, evaluation and certification purposes. In turn, this would address some of the gaps and current challenges of how participants were to be considered for promotion, confirmation of probation or transfer, based on their attendance and performance on NIPAM's programmes. As soon as this would have been developed, an integrated management

information system to support this system would have operationalised the initiative. However, for various reasons, this was never procured or realised.

One of the challenges in terms of the quality of data is its availability and timeliness. Therefore, with integrated systems, the various components of the systems or functional modules should be interrelated so the accuracy of data input into one module will affect the functioning and output of other modules. Thus, data quality and data accuracy are major determinants for an integrated system to be in place and to be implemented successfully.

At NIPAM, the main challenge with regard to data and information management is that there are various repositories for data. Each centre has a manually developed database which captures different data and is spread across the organisation. This hinders useful data and information management. Data-related challenges include locating a participant's details, tracking down their assessments submitted and finding their certificates. The inconsistent and fragmented systems prevent useful data from being converted into a single, consistent format before useful information for management decisions can be made.

The issue of quality assurance and quality management becomes questionable if the issues preventing the integration of both systems and the organisational structure are not addressed. Similarly, educating both NIPAM internal staff and clients on the importance of capturing accurate and correct data through consistent procedures should be a priority. When configured properly, an integrated training management system should automate various processes and procedures of creating, delivering and managing training. This should be linked to the functions and roles that staff perform and is by definition aligned with the competencies required for monitoring and evaluation purposes. Leveraging information and communication technology through such a system should enable staff responsible for delivering training to focus on strategic matters while the system takes care of the tactical requirements of administration.

Clear and effective communication was also cited as one of the critical success factors of an MDI. Communication includes the formal promotion of the institute's high-level goals and objectives, its strategy, its structure and its systems to report on progress, internally and externally to its stakeholders. In order to avoid failures in communication, an open and honest information policy communicated to the users and a free flow of information are required. Therefore, it is necessary to have a communication strategy and plan with consistent information, given that the clientele are a dedicated audience although they come from various institutions in the public sector.

In terms of the systems corresponding with the institutional performance, targets and key performance indicators, NIPAM is more concerned about recruiting the prescribed number of trainees or participants per cycle than about the quality of the training being offered, in spite of its failure to meet its target in any given year. Another consequence of the emphasis on quantitative targets was that programme managers were likely to over-report on targets, given that they had not necessarily met.

The issue of integrated systems cannot be seen in isolation from the performance of both individuals and the institution. Performance indicators developed to report on training provision, taking into account the price, mode of delivery, quality, responsiveness and level of customer satisfaction, are required. These are indicators developed around people-centric measures, such as currency, capabilities and relevance, as they are linked to individuals. An institution's ability to operationalise its development plans are a better measure of institutional capability as opposed to just reporting on numbers trained.

On the process side, systems to evaluate the efficiency and effectiveness of conferencing services, the commissioning process of demand- and needs-based training and consultancy services as well as the purchasing from third parties is important. Finally, there should be a deliberate integration of the financial measures or indicators against the core business of NIPAM. Currently, the value which the staff or employees have contributed to the bottom line compared to the wage bill and operating costs is not aligned with the mandate, vision, nor integrated during the reporting periods.

Perhaps it should be the organisation itself and not so much the monitoring and evaluation of the programmes which would have been of most interest to those being evaluated. Instead of regarding a training course as the end product or service, it should have been viewed more as a vehicle by which to achieve development objectives and improving service delivery. With the focus on performance measurement and results-based management, future courses should be assessed in the context of improving performance in the workplace and contributing to larger development goals. Had this approach been adopted by NIPAM, the many evaluations would have provided insights into how the organisation was contributing to improving performance within the public service, rather than playing a numbers game aimed at satisfying the reporting requirements. These insights would no doubt have been far richer and the subsequent organisational learning far more meaningful.

Finally, the issue of commitment throughout the entire MDI warrants some discussion. Since the integrated system assumes that it is an organisation wide and cross-functional system, it is vital to obtain support from all functional parts and members of the organisation. This means that its implementation and how successfully the systems will be implemented require commitment and cooperation of staff on all levels and across the entire organisation. Similarly, all staff must be convinced and aware of the benefits that such a system would bring and accordingly be committed to its implementation. Staff should firstly be aware of the need for change, recognise the need for change and finally be properly prepared for changes to prevent resistance and challenges when the system is being implemented.

On organisational learning, the literature has illustrated that the manner in which an organisation handles and processes data also provides insights into how predisposed it is to learning. In the case of NIPAM, a consistent stream of evaluations uncovered and presented information that contradicted deeply held organisational beliefs, yet it was very difficult in practice to effect the necessary changes. Therefore, what lies at the heart of a learning organisation is an organisation's ability to develop its capacity to engage in critical self-evaluation and question the assumptions underlying its actions. The commitment to the mobility across the public sector after having attended NIPAM's programmes is a case

in point. With the training intake being at an all-time low in 2017, attempts to introduce opportunities for evaluation illustrated that there was still much which needed to be done.

6.3.3 Responsive Services

A description and explanation of the third proposition, “NIPAM’s services are responsive and are based on consistent standards which are delivered across integrated systems to meet the clientele’s expectation”, is the focus of this section. In describing responsive services, the ideal of having integrated systems and consistent standards is important and is also explained. Having discussed the aspects around an integrated system and the consistent standards to be adopted in service delivery, the analysis appears to support the assumption that NIPAM does not necessarily have a predisposition to learning about how to position itself as the provider of choice for the public sector.

NIPAM’s services have been criticised as offering courses which are not relevant or do not address the needs of improved public service delivery. The institution relies largely on the directives of the Office of the Prime Minister for staff members to attend training. In particular, the provisions of the Public Service Staff Rules on Training and Development (PSSR on T&D) for O/M/As and Regional Councils (RCs) clearly state that staff of the public service are expected to develop human resources development (HRD) plans. Courses identified in these HRD Plans should be calculated not to exceed 20% of the wage bill of the respective O/M/As or RCs. Of this percentage, 25% of the allocation should be utilised for courses in the HRD Plan offered by NIPAM (Office of the Prime Minister, 2012:32). Perhaps it has been this policy provision that has contributed towards the complacency in sourcing the numbers expected and also the lack of consistent stakeholder engagement. In particular, it is believed that a lack of business development on the part of NIPAM is hampering effective service delivery.

Furthermore, during one of the intermittently scheduled stakeholder consultation sessions, the need for change management training was expressed. Such training has been viewed as a neglected area in which plenty of work needs to be done. NIPAM is therefore in a vantage position to devise courses that would equip its stakeholders with competencies for

managing change, especially in terms of behaviour. Some of the challenges related to behaviour change touch on issues of poor learning transfer, where participants who have undergone training still revert to old ways of doing things and do not necessarily apply what they had learnt during training. Additionally, along with the other challenges of poorly defined systems of monitoring and evaluation, there is no systematic follow-up on training and skills transfer after it has taken place. Relating this to issues of performance for service delivery improvement, the actual application of newly gained knowledge and skills acquired are not linked back to the performance of the individual or captured in the personal development plans of those sent on training.

The alignment of theory with practice was highlighted as a challenge in analysing the responsive services of NIPAM. Through the interviews conducted, at least half of the respondents indicated that the training courses offered by NIPAM, despite being theoretically sound, confirm that what actually happens in practice are worlds apart. This seems to point to what is known as the theory-practice gap, which is not unique to NIPAM. NIPAM has been urged to close this gap, thereby aligning what it says it does with what it does. As indicated in the previous sections, NIPAM, like many other MDIs on the continent, operates on the periphery of government and the wider public sector, leading to the fact that the institution is not well known in many parts of government.

With regard to the delivery of online services at NIPAM, the utilisation of e-learning for many of the courses has been neglected at NIPAM. Taken from various evaluation data, there have been several recommendations to address the challenge of participants or public service officials being away from their workplace for a long period of time to attend training. There have also been various appeals requesting NIPAM to improve its ICT capabilities and to establish a stronger ICT centre to address problems facing the public sector in this arena. Several aspects such as the support to government through the use of social media and harnessing the power of information technology, monitoring, evaluation and reporting on projects through the use of ICT, records management and human capital management are all issues which require whole-of-government approaches. Their integration through the popularisation of NIPAM's courses and programmes requires aligning NIPAM's mandate and objectives with the core business, communication and

marketing strategy and with the actual services rendered. The absence of this holistic understanding of NIPAM often leads to experiences which require simple solutions but since there is a lack of know-how, the public sector is sometimes compelled to hire other service providers.

In addition to the ongoing analysis of whether NIPAM is providing responsive services, one of the concerns raised pertains to the venue and location of the training. Many of the training sessions are held in Windhoek at the NIPAM campus, with very few courses and programmes being delivered in the regions. According to an interviewee,

It is all well that we support decentralisation and bring government closer to the people. But before NIPAM can help government decentralise, it should first decentralise its own services instead of just conducting training in Windhoek (Personal Interview, 2016).

MDIs have unique services to sell. If, however, the services are not defined, challenges will emerge. Services continuously change with various alternatives and emerging competitors. Tying in with the initial description and requirement for the MDI to operate as a capable institution, there are key competencies and specific qualifications which an employee at an MDI requires in order for the MDI to be able to respond to the demands that it faces. To ensure responsive services, the internal competencies required to advance the objectives include the development of focused or core public administration competencies in-house. These competencies are critical and also unique to the public sector and include policy analysis, formulation and implementation. In this regard, special attention is paid to how a public sector operates and, importantly, the rationale for bureaucratic organisations, systems thinking and the need to advance the public good.

These are knowledge, skills and attitudes, which have been receiving attention as evidenced by the direction the UK Civil Service Learning and now the National School of Government in South Africa have taken to develop these amongst their staff. At the same time, it is worthwhile to consider developing detailed and specific public sector management and leadership competencies across all levels through public sector-wide competency frameworks which MDIs must transfer to participants.

These competencies are unique competency sets of a future-focused public servant which are generic, such as computer literacy but at the same time are unique to the public sector. Examples of sets that are unique to the public sector include the following: the preparation of cabinet submissions and memoranda; mainstreaming gender and development; policy analysis, development and implementation; and national development planning, monitoring and reporting. The submission is that for MDIs to be relevant and needed, they must deliver these services with excellence. Much of this depends on their ability to attract and retain the right calibre of staff with the right competencies.

6.3.3.1 Consistent Standards

Speaking to the third proposition which contributes towards an MDI's responsive services, it is imperative not only for an integrated systems approach to be followed but also to adhere to standards not only to raise the quality of services but also to assess service delivery when adhered to consistently. Standards refer to the criteria in place to determine the quality management and delivery of services, from the curriculum design process, the development of materials, the delivery of training and services to finally the strategy for monitoring, evaluation and relevance of the services for the clientele base. Setting the right standards and implementing them consistently are crucial to enhanced individual and organisational performance and client satisfaction.

It has been reported that the absence of commonly shared and understood standards on which to base the development of curricula and materials development is an ongoing concern. The NIPAM institutional philosophy is non-existent. However, there have been talks of providing experiential learning in contrast to the standard lecturing as part of the pedagogy. Currently there is no framework for monitoring and evaluation of programmes. There are inconsistencies in how various materials for programmes are developed. Curriculum and programme development is questionable as the institution has not quite established whether it is to register with the NQA or NTA. This challenge is related to NIPAM's accreditation status and its position on the provision of training for qualifications.

More specifically, the institution has not pronounced on the direction to be taken on the development or adoption of professional standards to ensure quality. Although there have been discussions around the adoption of the guidelines of the International Organisation for Standards (ISO) for training, there has also been a movement towards collaborating with the Namibian Standards Institute (NSI), given the need to maintain local relevance and the need to satisfy the requirements of the Namibian context. In this regard, there have been challenges with the adoption of the NQA standards, given that the standards in place are pronounced for use within a higher education context. These NQA standards are explicit about the requirements and guidelines to be used to ensure that all programmes and institutions providing higher education services and qualifications are fit for their purpose.

In the same vein, the NTA provides the standards for all vocational training for more practice-oriented courses often related to a trade or artisanship. This presents a void for those attending NIPAM's programmes, particularly in view of the absence of standards, accreditation and a quality management framework for the public sector. A related challenge which has not quite been addressed is the challenge of addressing aspects of mobility across the public sector and the role of NIPAM, specifically the challenge of operationalising how NIPAM, under section 5 (b) of the Act, would be able to provide for the "appointment, promotion or transfer of persons in and to the public service" (Republic of Namibia, 2010:5).

This has been influenced by the top leadership's understanding of NIPAM's core philosophy which has never quite taken off since its inception. Similarly, the understanding and the integration of the NIPAM philosophy, something which is central to the development of standards, accreditation and quality assurance, is not sufficiently embedded or addressed in many of the institutional documents. To this end, depending on which centre generates a document, an observer may find different depictions of the same corporate image, which, in turn, affects the branding, image and reputation of NIPAM. A visit to the institutional website will also provide insights into its choice of design and how this choice affects the perception and branding of the institution.

6.3.4 Innovative Leadership

The fourth proposition, “The leadership of NIPAM is innovative and believes in embracing shared values to promote integration and cohesion”, is comprised of a number of elements. These elements, in turn, are premised on the need for the adoption of consistent standards and a collaborative culture. Following the description of NIPAM in the previous chapter, which highlighted its many leadership transitions, and challenges of executive leadership appointments since its inception in 2011, the matter of NIPAM’s top position has been highly controversial. Coupled with the negative publicity, the institution has been seen to appoint a new ED almost on an annual basis (*Informante*, 2013:3; Namibia Institute of Public Administration and Management, 2013:4; *The Windhoek Observer*, 2014:4; *New Era*, 2015:3; *Confidente*, 2016:1).

The executive leadership’s understanding of and attitude towards management and leadership development for transformation is important since it sets the tone and influences the attitudes of the various levels of staff within the organisation. With the executive leader orchestrating and leading change, their role should focus not only on empowering the staff to think critically about the organisation while enhancing their competencies, but also to inspire and motivate them towards a common vision. They must engage the various levels of the organisation or MDI to embrace change while making a commitment to evaluated learning and experiences, rather than to merely comply and provide an illusion of managing change. In many ways, the energy expended at NIPAM would have been more positive and conducive to learning through self-evaluation. By this, it is suggested that the organisation would have benefitted more from evaluating the mistakes and challenges that the organisation had encountered since its inception and channelled them towards improvement rather than avoiding the learning and confronting painful past experiences.

Against this context and background, staff of the NIPAM currently keep up appearances in terms of compliance, performance and ability. Rather than confronting the absence of well-functioning systems, key policies and decisions, staff are more likely to collectively agree for the sake of avoiding conflict and confrontation, possibly to maintain their own

positions or to avoid failure as a result of not addressing pertinent and key strategic concerns.

Despite the GC supporting the idea of appointing an individual with innovative leadership qualities, each of the five executive leaders who had an opportunity to head the NIPAM had their own style, approach, understanding and, correspondingly, their own respective agendas, mandate and vision, all of which were never realised to fruition. The media reports referred to in the foregoing paragraphs also reinforce the negative perceptions around the type and capacity of leadership of the institution, which, in turn, are linked to the rest of the NIPAM management and training staff (*The Windhoek Observer*, 2014:3). The general consequence of the leadership transitions is a situation where the previous leaders were slated for not addressing the issues central to NIPAM's mandate. For instance, there have been criticisms regarding the institute's approach of trailing behind government, instead of shaping and influencing the reform agenda of innovation and service delivery improvement.

The need for an MDI to have an innovative leader or at least a leader who understands the importance of innovative leadership to realise its mandate is considered to be a very important factor. The importance of appointing an ED or head of an MDI with forward-thinking qualities and a propensity to embrace risk-taking is critical to drive innovation and consensus and to oversee the management of the organisation in its entirety. One of the qualities of an innovative leader is the continuous management of resistance and change during each phase of organisational transition. An innovative leader should also possess strong (courageous) leadership, public sector, business, technical, personal and managerial competencies. Hence, it can be expected that an MDI with a leader who possesses these competencies may enhance future success and repositioning. However, the conclusion reached in confirming the proposition is far from promising at this time and needs to be considered within the context of whether the organisational culture is collaborative and conducive to ultimately improving service delivery. This is discussed in the next section.

6.3.5 Collaborative Culture

The fifth proposition, “The staff and leadership at NIPAM understand the importance of a collaborative culture and promote it”, is now discussed. The organisational culture at NIPAM should be considered in conjunction with the prevalent leadership style. This style is similarly premised on the existing and shared values across the organisation. The shared values, in turn, shape the organisational culture, which has been cited to be important across organisations and specifically across MDIs is central to how an organisation is able to function in tandem with its objectives.

Several studies have illustrated that a mismatch between the organisation and the culture can be problematic for an MDI in achieving its objectives. Some researchers have suggested that learning organisations ensure that the structure, systems and staff should be aligned with the organisation’s culture and similarly that the culture should be redesigned to fit the requirements of the organisational strategy. Organisational culture, described within the context of the ALO Model of Learning Governance can therefore be characterised as comprising innovative leadership and shared values across the organisation.

Taken together, these two elements depicted as intersecting leaves in the ALO Model of Learning Governance suggest that leadership is considered as one of the most frequently cited critical success factors for an MDI. In particular, the ED or head of the institute must be sanctioned and approved by both the board and government. The ED must be given the accountability and required resources to achieve the mandate. However, the problem, as indicated in the previous section, is that there has been a serious leadership deficit at NIPAM.

Part of the challenge is that the role of the ED is a multifaceted, multidisciplinary one which may be described as highly stressful, due in part to the issues around governance and reporting. They are expected to manage not only the organisation, staff with varying degrees of competence and experience and stakeholder expectations but they are also constrained by the GC and decisions imposed by the GC and TDB and the influence of the

political landscape and reporting politicians. Furthermore, the ED is a contract position facing a relatively short tenure of five years, ambitious targets and numerous challenges in the quest towards public sector transformation. This has implications for creating a collaborative organisational culture and recognising the complexities involved in managing an interconnected and interdependent organisation.

This collaborative culture encompasses the organisation's adoption of shared values and has been described as the guiding principle of ideas, attitudes and behaviour around which an organisation is built (Peters & Waterman, 1982:34). In NIPAM's case, the term refers to the degree to which the staff accept and believe in the capability of the institute to perform as a cohesive whole. The current set of values being promoted by management as described in the strategic plan, however, require more internalisation. More effective initiatives and programmes should be devised, possibly by the human capital unit to ensure that those captured in the high-level documents are operationalised and are being shared and appreciated by all members of the organisation. What is required is a situation where everyone is informed and where information and ideas are continuously exchanged, resulting in rich, robust but accessible information to the benefit of the organisation.

Similarly, in terms of achieving the mandate of NIPAM, this overarching high-level goal should enable the generation of good-quality, evidenced-based solutions in a timely and networked manner that should be organised in such a way that it provides the staff the opportunity to describe in detail what NIPAM strives towards. While it may be a given that NIPAM still continues to operate within the confines of its silos, separating the academic and training staff from the administrative and support staff, there have to be ways in which this narrow approach can be enlarged. Doing so would promote collaboration and the understanding of connections, challenges and opportunities. This mindset change is directly related to the final part of the ALO Model of Learning Governance which is discussed next.

6.3.6 Learning Governance

The sixth and last proposition in the ALO Model of Learning Governance states that “NIPAM has a well-defined learning governance strategy which strengthens its mandate, role and expectations of which funding is a key element. This is depicted in the meeting and culmination of all five intersecting leaves at the circular node and accordingly labelled “Learning Governance”.

Following the foregoing discussion on the application of the ALO Model of Learning Governance to the NIPAM, it is useful to point out that perhaps the worst thing that could happen is that, instead of learning from poor performance or failure, an organisation fails to learn anything at all or even learn and relearn unhelpful practices.

It may be argued that in NIPAM's case not all the learning that has taken place, if at all, has necessarily been a good thing. The seven years of experience has generated many misconceptions through media reports, staff turnover, dwindling numbers and sporadic changes in top and senior leadership. Ultimately, the process by which the organisation has allowed itself to learn from its experiences or to avoid such learning is an important determinant of its capacity to adapt and grow or stagnate and atrophy. In other words, learning governance may be considered a central determinant in the organisation's sustainability and whether it remains true to its *raison d'être*.

Furthermore, an MDI's leadership's approach to learning influences the approach within the entire organisation. More often than not, however, the failure, inability or unwillingness to learn may be traced back to the leadership level. Leaders may resist change because of their vested interest in keeping things the way they are, their fear of the unknown, or their failure to see the need for transforming the public sector. In many cases, the principle of bounded rationality in the public sector plays a role. Explained briefly, the context of the public sector itself, with its bureaucracies and hierarchies, may play a role in restricting the capacity of individuals to learn.

Past research on learning organisations may confirm this and attribute it to the fact that the staff and individuals are not incapable of learning but that they have learnt far too much about their organisation, what has worked and what has failed in the past. Ironically, this past learning is the very obstacle to new learning or ability to learn (Salaman & Butler, 1990:182).

This learning resistance, coupled with the importance of keeping abreast of the emerging developments across MDIs in developing and adopting common frameworks for capacity development across the public sectors they serve, immediately illustrates a mismatch. The absence of a broad policy framework to reinforce the interrelationships between the Public Service Training Policy, Competency Framework and common standards for curriculum development and training outcomes for the Namibian public sector through NIPAM may further marginalise the MDI and impede it from achieving its mandate and purpose. As discussed in chapter four, a common framework outlining public sector capacities, service design and delivery, organisational working and development, and leadership across MDIs resonates well with the idea of positioning such organisations to advance the public sector reform agenda.

Finally, the application of the ALO model to NIPAM in terms of learning governance suggests that to be effective and to justify its existence, it should collaborate with similar institutions to establish communities of practice and centres of excellence. Currently, although several MoUs have been signed, and broad collaborative strategies have been crafted, their implementation and sustainability have been ongoing challenges. Relating this to the leadership and the several leadership changes at NIPAM, each time a new ED is appointed, the process of signing and sometimes re-signing MoUs with existing and identified partner institutions has been a common practice.

Unfortunately, the past seven years have highlighted the emerging and growing challenges for NIPAM and its failure to recognise and interrogate many of these interrelated aspects through the application of the ALO Model of Learning Governance. Part of the failure has over the years resulted in the appointment of people with inadequate management and leadership competencies into the key leadership position which

correspondingly affects the inability for NIPAM to learn and become a learning organisation. While this in itself may not necessarily be the focus of this dissertation, a recent local newspaper article focusing on one of the previous acting EDs of NIPAM is quoted as saying that “NIPAM [...] is a learning institution” (*Windhoek Observer*, 2016:15). However, whether the institute may lay any claim to being a learning organisation is questionable and may be considered in future research.

Relating the learning highlighted in the previous section to MDIs and to whether there is a possibility for such institutions to become learning organisations and subsequently establish conditions for a learning governance approach, it must be stated that learning is bound to occur in any organisation. Much learning takes place unconsciously, that is to say, staff members of an organisation do not undertake learning in a formal, structured or conscious manner, either as individuals or as a collective. Learning is seen to be derived from the performance of individuals at all levels, tasks and functions. To this end, there are three opportunities to lay the foundation for learning governance to take place.

The first opportunity is presented as one in which learning is directed at developing, implementing and internalising an organisation’s policies, rules and regulations. The second points towards learning about the organisation’s purpose or objectives. The third and final opportunity focuses on learning about the stakeholders of the organisation, namely people inside and also outside of the organisation. For any learning to be effective, an organisation should be able to move into a position where it consciously seeks to encourage learning amongst its members. This learning should not just be confined to the MDI. The introduction of think tanks, policy dialogues and action research, all very much like engaging in public consultations, should be advanced by MDIs in an attempt to bring together ideas and proposed solutions to a highly complex and interconnected environment. To do this, certain requirements should be satisfied.

The first requirement is for the organisation to define and achieve a balance between operational tasks and functions and strategic tasks and functions. Across MDIs, however, there appears to be a preference for achieving operational targets and objectives over achieving deeper process understanding and improving systems. The outcome of such

focus often results in conflicting and opposed priorities, namely between action and learning.

The second requirement, which is taken from the analysis of NIPAM, is that the strategy should be decided collectively, meaning that all stakeholders, both internally and externally, ranging from staff, trainees or participants to key stakeholders from the public sector, should be involved. Through their inputs and suggestions, their participation in positioning NIPAM's services to be relevant and advancing NIPAM's role in policymaking and the reform agenda is critical. With this participation and the advancement of a collaborative culture, there is likely to be more commitment, a sense of ownership, and a willingness and enthusiasm to collectively achieve the organisation's objectives. There is then a shared vision for the organisation in which a significant proportion of staff has made an input instead of, as is more usually the case, the traditional top-down vision written by senior management with the help of external consultants (Senge, 1990:213).

The third requirement for a learning governance to be internalised entails that members of the organisation should have access to information about what they and the organisation are doing. In many public sector institutions, information has been traditionally very closely guarded by the decision-makers and staff occupying the higher echelons. Much of the information is not shared with the rest of the organisation – possibly due to the fear of disrupting the status quo. This information becomes scattered, withheld and later inaccessible, making the initial information “undiscussable” (Argyris & Schon, 1978:54). These fragmented pieces of information and disjointed data often result in information disproportionateness, which, in turn, undermines trust and erodes the organisational culture as members fail to see and understand the whole picture.

While retaining and sharing information with those at the higher levels in the organisation is problematic, the inability of those at the lower levels in the organisation to filter information upwards is equally challenging. Organisations do not often leverage the internal capacity and existing knowledge amongst staff within the organisation. This results in the engagement and appointment of external consultants to advise senior decision-

makers on issues which they would have already had access to from their operational or lower-level staff.

The fourth and final requirement for a learning governance mindset is leadership. While strong and capable leadership is necessary, the combination of strong, innovative leadership that understands and drives learning is the ultimate requirement.

6.4 Conclusions in Applying the Adaptive Leadership Model of Learning Governance

The conclusions reached in applying the ALO Model of Learning Governance to NIPAM is comprised of two aspects, namely the aspects which resonate with the organisational or micro level in its application and the environment external to the institute or the macro level influences.

With regard to the micro level of operation, there are generic organisation development principles that are cross-cutting and applicable to most, if not all, MDIs when it comes to transforming them. Based on these principles, it is believed that these requirements are geared towards positioning public sector training institutes or MDI centres of excellence. Furthermore, these requirements should be observed within their respective countries and contexts. The aforementioned principles involve:

- 6.4.1 The assurance that the institution develops into a capable one through the appointment, development and retention of competent and capable staff to advance the MDI's vision, mission, mandate and objectives;
- 6.4.2 The organisation's commitment to developing the internal and external capacity (resource persons) to implement a credible vision and strategy and the mobilisation of strategic partners to implement and advance change;
- 6.4.3 The adoption of commonly shared and understood principles and standards which promote an adaptive organisational design as a requirement for planning, staffing and human capital management, resourcing, budgeting, operations and service delivery if MDIs are to be responsive and relevant;

- 6.4.4 The institution-wide ownership and implementation of an integrated system which involves not only the administrative systems but also the systems to deliver services in the advancement of a quality culture;
- 6.4.5 The development and delivery of marketable services and products and being contemporary by being at the cutting edge of public sector innovation even if the main stakeholders are defined and comprise the public sector; and
- 6.4.6 The cultivation of a collaborative culture by engagement and participation to meet the expectations of the stakeholder and clientele groups.

From a macro perspective, the application of the ALO Model of Learning Governance to NIPAM has illustrated that the intention of the Namibian Government to establish it as a unique institution appears to be one of its biggest challenges. It is therefore useful to establish how NIPAM is able to reposition itself in light of the various challenges it is currently experiencing. Firstly, with regard to its sustainability, NIPAM's main challenge is how to derive its funding in view of the current revenue and financial model.

While many O/M/As have been advancing government reform in pursuit of the realisation of Vision 2030 through the national development plans, they have also been subjected to the OPM and the related institutional performance directives as the custodian for such initiatives. These administrative and managerial reforms have necessitated the recruitment of experienced specialists and, in many cases, consultants.

The NIPAM, a project cultivated and grown at the OPM, is a case in point. Over the years, prior to its inception, the OPM was able to solicit financial assistance and, most of the time, additional experts through the secondment of technical staff through the bilateral cooperation efforts with France, India and Finland. Although the project and the bilateral agreements had concluded and the projects signed off for full implementation as structures in their own right, government had not necessarily developed or changed the funding aspects along with the governance and organisational models and practices for staff to be absorbed in these new institutions. The current position forces the institution to deviate

from its initial mandate of providing training relevant to public sector needs and to focus largely on the profit margin for long-term sustainability.

The transfer of many of the functions central to advancing NIPAM's mandate have not been handed over to the institute in the seven years of its existence. The development of strategic plans, training on key policies, procedures and systems, such as the performance management system, electronic records management system, human capital management system and customer care training system, have not been formally signed over to NIPAM by the appropriate custodians. This rigidity and inability to relinquish aspects pertaining to the research, training and consultancy of the functions further reinforce the marginalisation of NIPAM. This may be explained by describing the composition of the public service itself which is comprised of bureaucrats who understand their role as applying policies and the law and who are reluctant to renounce the capacity development component of the various systems intended to improve the administrative and management functions established for the public service.

This inflexibility contradicts systems thinking and affects operations, resulting in an interpretation of all tasks and functions as only one element in the policy implementation process. Therefore, segregating the training and capacity development function from the cycle of implementation would suggest changes to their role and accountability as policy custodians. In addition to this mindset, there may also be an issue of trust. This trust could be related to the performance and track record of the institution in terms of its inability to deliver according to government's expectations over the past seven years. This situation is worsened by the reluctance to transfer the training and capacity development function to NIPAM.

The described preference structures which entail relinquishing the function of training to a public sector institute established for that purpose are still based on deeply rooted traditions and values of the traditional public service. The Namibian administrative culture is still very much rule-oriented and relies on bureaucratically patterned command and control principles. There have been a number of NPM administrative reforms which are

influenced by NPM approaches but these have not been considered with regard to the integration of the education and training for the public sector itself.

The aforementioned administrative reforms are linked to the current staff complement of NIPAM whose methods of selection and recruitment are very much based on the traditional competencies required by the public service. With this in mind, the current NIPAM structure and mode of operations require a rethink.

Against the background of these empirical findings, there are reasons to assume that case- and country-specific features and trajectories which reflect national styles of administration are extremely important. These provide the necessary background to and understanding of an MDI's organisational blueprint, particularly in terms of areas considered as challenging.

6.5 Summary and Conclusions

The overall analysis and evaluation of the NIPAM in terms of the ALO Model of Learning Governance is captured in Table 6.1 This evaluation also answers the research sub-question: How does the current institutional setup in Namibia meet the requirements of the ideal model of an MDI? The answer to this question lies in the charge for NIPAM to improve good governance and develop best practices through the realisation of its mandate. In order to support the Namibian government's reform and development agenda, achieving the mandate may be an indomitable one. Along with this task is the drive towards creating a unified public service to instil and cultivate a culture and professional ethos so that the public sector is not seen as a mere job provider but rather as a vehicle to assist the state towards economic transformation and prosperity for all Namibians.

Based on the analysis provided in this chapter, it is concluded that the current model of governance, management and leadership development which NIPAM is advancing is not only inappropriate but it is also inadequate. While the institutional governance structure and mandate have been well set out in legislation, the operationalisation of the vision and mission through the strategic plan requires strengthening. By the same token, very few of

the staff and leadership at NIPAM understand the importance of a collaborative culture and, as a result, achieving a common understanding organisation-wide impedes all initiatives and attempts to promote such a culture. The selection, recruitment and development of staff are integral to popularise the notion of collaboration.

Proposition	Does not comply	Complies to a limited extent	Complies	Complies to a great extent
NIPAM is a capable institution with a well-defined governance structure, clear vision and clear mission and a strategic plan which is implemented by capable staff who have been properly selected, recruited and developed to fulfil its mandate.		X		
The organisational structure of NIPAM is adaptive and flexible yet having well - integrated systems.	X			
NIPAM's services are responsive and are based on consistent standards which are delivered across integrated systems to meet the clientele's expectations.	X			
The leadership of NIPAM is innovative and believes in embracing shared values to promote integration and cohesion.	X			
The staff and leadership at NIPAM understand the importance of a collaborative culture and promote it.		X		
NIPAM has a well-defined learning governance strategy which strengthens its mandate, role and expectations of which funding is a key element.	X			

Table 6.1 Overall Evaluation of the Namibia Institute of Public Administration and Management with the ALO Model of Learning Governance

Critical issues which require overhauling relate to the alignment of the structure with the strategy of the institute and warrant serious attention. The organisational structure, absence of coherent and integrated systems, standards and quality assurance mechanisms all affect the delivery of services, relevance and responsiveness. If NIPAM succeeds in executing its mandate, Namibia will be the first in Africa to steer its public service in the right direction purposefully. This conviction is in line with Vision 2030 which calls for a paradigm shift for all Namibians to collectively bring about change and begin to do business in an unusual manner with the appreciation that the Namibian people are the most prized resource on this journey. However, to advance a learning governance strategy, the existence of innovative leadership is critical and has unfortunately, up to the writing of this dissertation in October 2017, been non-existent.

The limitations and challenges highlighted in this chapter will be addressed in the final chapter, chapter seven, which proposes a set of recommendations.

Chapter 7: Lessons for the Future of Governance, Management and Leadership Development in Namibia

We have for many decades been living in a “post-industrial” society. I believe we are now on the verge of a “post-managerial” society, perhaps even a “post-organizational” society. ... [T]his doesn’t mean a future without managers. Just as the coming of the knowledge economy didn’t herald the death of heavy industry, a “post-managerial” economy won’t be entirely free of executives, supervisors, administrators and overseers. But it does imply a future in which the “work of management” is less and less the responsibility of “managers.” To be sure, activities will still need to be coordinated, individual efforts aligned, relationships nurtured, objectives decided upon, and knowledge disseminated. But increasingly, this work will be distributed out to those on the periphery (Hamel, 2008:5).

7.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to provide a set of conclusions and corresponding recommendations based on a number of aspects highlighted in chapter six regarding the application of the ALO Model of Learning Governance to the Namibia Institute of Public Administration and Management (NIPAM).

7.2 Chapter Overview

The title of this chapter, “Lessons for the Future of Governance, Management and Leadership Development in Namibia”, focuses on drawing conclusions as well as making recommendations both for the NIPAM and the Namibian Government. It also provides an indication of how the study contributes to the body of knowledge of public policy, administration, management, leadership development and governance by finally providing an answer to the research question: What kind of governance, management and leadership development model is required for the Namibian public sector?

7.3 Conclusions on the Application of the Adaptive Leadership Model of Learning Governance to the Namibia Institute of Public Administration and Management

With regard to the application of the ALO Model of Learning Governance applied to the NIPAM in the previous chapter, the following conclusions have been reached:

- 7.3.1 While NIPAM is an institution with a well-defined governance structure as provided for by the NIPAM Act, (Act 10 of 2010), the absence of a clear vision and mission and a poorly aligned strategic plan present a number of challenges in view of realising its mandate. Similarly, the weak internal staff capacity and the poor alignment of the strategy with the structure further compound these challenges.
- 7.3.2 The organisational structure of NIPAM is highly bureaucratic with manually driven systems which are fragmented;
- 7.3.3 The absence of commonly understood, clearly articulated and consistently applied standards impact on NIPAM's ability to provide responsive services which are expected to meet the clientele's expectations;
- 7.3.4 There is an absence of shared values and innovative leadership which has prevented the NIPAM from cultivating an integrated and cohesive organisational culture;
- 7.3.5 The current staff and leadership at NIPAM do not appear to advance collaboration and participation and thus do not promote it;
- 7.3.6 NIPAM's funding model, absence of ongoing learning, reflective practice and sharing of experiences to scaffold administration on leadership impact on its ability to implement a learning governance strategy.

These conclusions and the previous chapter have implications for NIPAM's future. Due to the nature of NIPAM's institutional arrangements, there are both external and internal forces which may impact on NIPAM's ability to shape its future. These are explained in the next section.

7.4. External Factors that will Shape the Future of the Namibia Institute of Public Administration and Management

External forces may not be in the institution's control which means that in order for NIPAM to fulfil its mandate of serving as the Namibian government's implementation arm, government has an important role to play by firstly, creating the structural and enabling preconditions for raising the benefits and understanding of good governance, management and leadership development across the Namibian public sector. Secondly, government is to address issues around policy coordination and coherence across the sector pertaining to technical, vocational education and training in Namibia. Thirdly, in view of improving delivery, exercise quality control and operationalising the standards, norms and procedures for mobility across the public sector; and finally, to promote and establish the financing arrangements as dictated by the policy and legal framework on training and development. Each of these elements warrants discussion and recommendations.

7.4.1 Create Structural and Policy-enabling Preconditions

With regard to creating the structural and enabling preconditions for raising the benefits and understanding of good governance, management and leadership development across the Namibian public sector, there are four key aspects which government may consider.

Firstly, in terms of NIPAM's *raison d'être*, government needs to rethink the role and need for NIPAM's services and whether the existence of the organisation can be justified. The mandate itself relates to the very soul of the organisation. The main issue to be considered is that the Namibian government has specific obligations to the society it serves. Hence, while the *raison d'être* for organisations such as NIPAM (albeit a political one) is captured in a clearly stated, legal mandate, the mandate is not very well defined.

It is therefore critical to strengthen NIPAM's mandate by motivating people to attend the programmes as an incentive for career mobility across the public sector, namely to provide pathways to those requiring progression, transfer and confirmation of probation. It is also

important to remove the structural impediments to increase these returns by strengthening the recognition of prior learning and competencies required in the public sector.

In view of this, it is recommended that the role and position of the Namibia Institute of Public Administration and Management is reconsidered. Under this recommendation, four key areas are covered and are explained as follows: Firstly, Government should formalise and issue public sector-wide directives to support the HRD policy framework and staff rules on training and development for the public service of Namibia. These directives will be accompanied by the handover of the training and consultancy functions from various policy custodians and institutions such as the OPM, MoF, MURD, NPC and PSC in articulating and defining the modalities for attending mandatory NIPAM training.

Secondly, as part of this move to strengthen NIPAM's mandate, the public service competency framework should be made widely available and in operationalising it, there should be an insistence from government that the key requirements and competencies for public sector placement are met. This should be done in a transparent and open manner illustrating access and openness to these requirements from both individuals and the public sector. While the national qualification systems provide their own set of criteria, the popularisation and recognition of a public sector-wide competency framework through informal and non-formal prior learning can contribute to developing needs-based capacity development and training programmes.

Thirdly, this arrangement allowing public sector employees to have their skills recognised, independently of whether these have been acquired through formal training or non-formal learning experiences such as competency-based exams, assists in the drive towards creating a culture of continuous and lifelong learning. In particular, training should be seen as an investment emphasising the involvement of various role players in the public sector. To this end, frequent induction training courses should be scheduled and implemented by NIPAM while being monitored and evaluated for impact by the Department of Public Service Management.

Fourthly and finally, the quality and consistency of trainers in the pool of trainers have to be managed and monitored closely. In line with this, a TOT strategy outlining the criteria, standards and NIPAM-accredited trainers has to be formulated to ensure that consistent attention to quality is upheld. Therefore, for anyone to provide training at NIPAM, selection criteria coupled with rigorous assessments are to be introduced and should be a mandatory requirement to be met prior to being appointed. All contracting arrangements, particularly those from the public sector, have to be spelt out in the form of a policy directive indicating amount of time spent at NIPAM and honorarium/fees to be paid for such services.

7.4.2 Enhance Policy Coordination and Coherence for the Namibian Public Sector

With regard to policy coordination and coherence pertaining to public sector training in Namibia, government may consider the aspects discussed below to enhance the process.

Since NIPAM is expected to shape the legislative and policy environment for enhancing and promoting the understanding of good governance, management and leadership development across the Namibian public sector, the current institutional arrangements do not enable the institute to fulfil its mandate or to make any meaningful impact. This resonates with the need for government to play a key role in policy coordination and promote coherence across the sector pertaining to technical, vocational education and training in Namibia, with particular reference to the role of NIPAM. In chapter five, it is argued that the development of a more coherent legislative and policy framework for capacity building in the public sector may also assist in enhancing the need for NIPAM as a dedicated government training institute. To this end, there is a need to create awareness and ownership across the public sector on the role of NIPAM and to encourage public sector institutions to attend training at NIPAM. Although there are policies such as the Public Service Staff Rules and the Training Policy which support the role of NIPAM, these guidelines are considered as only applicable to central government and Regional Councils.

As also indicated in chapter five, there are currently several training service providers which government calls on to provide training and, equally, there are miscellaneous role players who provide consultancy and research services. Although this is not unique to NIPAM, the absence of coordination and coherence was also highlighted as a similar concern across MDIs in chapter three.

Ideally, policy frameworks require coordination of all stakeholders involved to advance the administrative reform agenda. These elements should include extensive coordination efforts towards harmonising current TVET and national training policy frameworks, the monitoring and evaluation of training and public sector performance policy objectives, the use of adult and experiential learning to ensure training relevance, transfer and improve job performance. Given the current challenges experienced with regard to duplications of functions and mandates in the Namibian TVET environment, the training policy for the Public Service of Namibia should first and foremost concentrate on an approach which has large leverage potential for NIPAM.

it is therefore recommended that government plays a proactive role in establishing quality control and standards for capacity development across the public sector. To do this, there are three areas which may be considered by Government. Firstly, Government should strengthen the policy framework for public sector training and development by gazetting standards and work-based performance requirements for all training providers to adhere to, specifically for training providers from the public sector.

Furthermore, government should also consider making the requisite provisions for all service providers who train in the public sector to meet both international and local certification requirements such as ISO 9001:2015 and other national standards for training and capacity development. The monitoring and evaluation of training standards and capacity development in general should articulate with the public sector expenditure and return on investment. As such, as part of NIPAM's mandate to conduct capacity evaluation, the institute should conduct a required annual training audit so it can strengthen this requirement in view of gazetting it as a standard as a requirement for capacity development and training.

Thirdly and finally, Government should strengthen the role and position of the NIPAM for policy formulation, providing action research, innovation and programme delivery in view of improving the lack of coordination between the various clientele of MDIs and government. NIPAM should be charged with serving as the role of coordinator, advisory body and developer of the think tank function for policy development. Such a role would include, as part of supporting the think tank function, prioritising the development of capacity for the implementation of public sector initiatives, defining appropriate incentives for increasing capacity development needs, and improving the quality of training, research and consultancy services through the collaboration with various partners. Setting targets in terms of training numbers of participants and final output may also assist in obtaining a diverse range of actors to work towards common goals. Such regulatory and institutional arrangements that are conducive to enhancing NIPAM's role as coordinator may also include, but are not limited to, hosting national conferences of national concern and publishing the results of various action research in the public sector.

For instance, NIPAM could embark on research to assess the status of various initiatives and reform efforts, such as the implementation and status of the Decentralisation Policy, given that progress in this area has been reported as slow. Furthermore, more research and development (R&D) is required since the outcomes and recommendations of research have become important drivers of innovation and economic growth. Namibia's strategic initiatives for economic development include the establishment of centres of excellence and call for more applied research. In particular, the NDP4 review called for coordinated responses to determine who is to conduct R&D, what activities qualify as R&D and, more critically, what can be considered as high-quality R&D.

Given these needs and growing potential, NIPAM will have to determine what it will be doing and, even more importantly, what it will not be doing. The counterparts of NIPAM, as discussed in this chapter, have very clearly demarcated areas of operation, even though they have huge resources available. However, it does not necessarily mean that the core business of an organisation should be limited to a specific area of specialisation.

7.4.3 Operationalise Standards, Norms and Procedures for Mobility across the Public Sector

At the same time, it is essential to ensure that certification systems are credible and transparent to employers; otherwise, certified skills might be devalued in the labour market. High-quality information and guidance provision facilitates access to participation, helps improve visibility of the gains resulting from management and leadership development, and ensures a better match between the demands of individuals and supply. Lack of information on the availability and the quality of courses offered may affect perceptions of what individuals can gain from engaging in learning.

Turning to the issue of introducing a quality culture at NIPAM, there is no doubt that poor-quality programmes and a lack of information and knowledge on training courses and programme outcomes often result in poor uptake and participation. Thus, to enhance the reputation and credibility of the services rendered, there is a need for a quality assurance system to be implemented for accreditation and certification purposes. This will support the importance of programme assessment and evaluation in establishing credible programmes.

As one of the recommendation, it may be useful for government to develop and gazette regulations to support the role NIPAM in view of improving administrative capacity. To close the identified gaps, the following sections of the NIPAM Act 2010 (Act 10 of 2010) speak to the certification, registration, development of norms and standards and eligibility requirements for public sector officials to attend courses at NIPAM. The institution is to be registered as a dedicated provider of choice for the public sector of Namibia in its own right as per the mandate and Act. Hence, the certification and registration of NIPAM as a dedicated public sector training provider should be gazetted so that it is in a position “to conduct such examinations or tests as necessary as a qualification for the appointment, promotion or transfer of persons in or to the public service” (Republic of Namibia, 2010:15). Similarly, the NIPAM is to develop or in “collaboration with international and national bodies, norms and standards for the award of qualifications and accreditation [...] develop gazetted regulations on establishing minimum eligibility requirements for the

registration and attending [of a] course, or cancellation of registration” (Republic of Namibia, 2010:15).

In the absence of a quality assurance framework for short courses and learning programmes, it is recommended that government should set an appropriate regulatory framework for the development of quality standards for competencies required in the public sector, certify adherence to these standards and disseminate information about adhering to these standards through existing national bodies such as the Namibia Standards Institute (NSI). To promote competition amongst training service providers and to enhance transparency, all providers, including NIPAM, should be compelled to provide information regarding their quality to the general public. Public employment services should be encouraged to further enhance their own quality standards when referring unemployed clients to continuing training courses provided by the private or public sector. More generally, providers’ participation in public tenders constitutes a promising way of ensuring quality of provision.

By verifying what works and what does not, for whom and under what circumstances, assessment and evaluation can contribute to more efficient and effective policymaking. Capacity evaluation is not an easy undertaking, especially as measuring training programmes directed at adults is a lot more diverse and idiosyncratic than evaluating general projects that have measurable and tangible outcomes.

7.4.4 Promote and Establish Financing Arrangements as Dictated by the Policy and Legal Framework on Training and Development

Speaking to the funding model of NIPAM, for any organisation to survive in the long term, it has to be financially sustainable. This is in view of financing and balancing between funds generated by the institution and the government subvention or funding. While there are various possibilities on how to obtain funds to be financially sustainable, NIPAM will have to determine which option will be viable for its particular circumstances. Chapter five examined financing arrangements aimed at improving training uptake while increasing the effectiveness of the training delivered. Financial constraints have been particularly acute

and have been a steady concern over the past three years, given the financial crisis and cuts in government training expenditure. Furthermore, several O/M/As and, in particular, subnational government institutions, such as regional councils and local authorities, do not currently have sufficient financial resources to invest in generic management and leadership training as opposed to sector-specific and technical courses and programmes – even though it may be worthwhile for the Namibian economy as a whole.

In this regard, it is recommended that the financial funding sustainability of the NIPAM is strengthened. Related to this, the Public Service Human Resource Development Policy for Accelerated Service Delivery in the Public Service of Namibia (2012) is operationalised by implementing 25% of 20% allocation of the public service wage bill for NIPAM courses. It is also recommended that in order to test the institute's mettle for being innovative, alternative streams of revenue generation for NIPAM should be developed to avoid reliance and dependency on government funding. Finally, back to the NIPAM Act, 2010 (Act 10 of 2010), it is sound to develop regulations to determine the fees payable by a public servant, any person, client, organisation or beneficiary to be gazetted by the line Minister.

From a strategic and macro-level point of view, the public sector should provide NIPAM with its training and performance improvement needs through the OPM so that the percentages and allowances devoted to the human resources development requirements can be budgeted for, targeted and facilitated as long as the needs are aligned with the strategic and annual plans of the public sector institutions and are appropriately targeted. To this end, the importance of regularly scheduled Annual Independent Audits are critical to ensure that NIPAM is performing according to its mandate and meeting the needs of its clientele groups. The audits should not only focus on issues of funding and sustainability but also assess the extent to which the standards, norms and regulations contribute to the mobility and the improvement of performance and administrative capacity across the public sector.

7.5 Internal Factors to Consider for the Repositioning of the Namibia Institute of Public Administration and Management

The application of the ALO Model of Learning Governance to reposition and strengthen the current NIPAM as an MDI from a micro-level perspective, influenced by internal factors, has raised a number of interesting aspects. These are discussed in the next section.

7.5.1 Develop Institutional Capabilities

Following NIPAM's reason for existence and repositioning, there are various opportunities to explore in view of developing its capabilities. These include, firstly, the amendment of the NIPAM Act, 2010 (Act 10 of 2010) to bring its provisions in line with good governance practice. Part of the amendments should include amendments to the constitution of the training and development board of NIPAM to reflect a board which comprises not only government officials but also include strategic HR professionals and representatives of the key stakeholder groups to which NIPAM provides services. These stakeholders should have oversight of programmes and services rendered in order to hold the ED and the executive management team to account, ensuring the quality of delivery and governance, as well as programme execution and adherence to timelines and programme delivery. A full review of the operations, strategies and financial statements should be conducted bi-annually and be presented to the GC for approval, indicating clear and defined outcomes, goals and targets.

Both the GC and the TDB should challenge progress and assess the key performance indicators against the Annual Plan at the quarterly meetings. In addition, to improve the governance system as part of the amendment of the NIPAM Act, 2010 (Act 10 of 2010), the combination of autonomy and state control should be explicitly stated, since NIPAM is still dependent on government funding.

With regard to NIPAM's staffing, at the orientation phase, all new employees who join NIPAM should be provided with a full induction programme. Such a programme should

include the provision of an institutional handbook and policy manual together with training on the NIPAM philosophy, training on NIPAM's Strategic and Annual Plan and explanations of NIPAM's role in transforming the public sector. An effective performance management system which is user friendly, aligned with institutional performance and understood across the organisation is required.

As part of NIPAM's contribution to research and development and growth in their subject and functional areas, all staff should be assessed on the following: their performance in research, training and other NIPAM-relevant domains; their acquisition of external funding and number and quality of journal publications; and their acquisition of specific objectives to bring NIPAM credibility. To strengthen this, the capacity development of employees through an institutionalised staff development programme, aligned with individual performance agreements and personal development plans, should be developed, particularly focusing on the areas where NIPAM lacks expertise. The training of NIPAM's resource pool should include the NIPAM training philosophy. This resource pool should similarly undergo an orientation and induction training. All training presented internally should also be subject to NIPAM's quality assurance system and standards which are to be developed and implemented.

An effective marketing and communication strategy is a necessity taking into consideration the targeted stakeholders, as this will strengthen NIPAM's activities. As with all communication across the organisation and to foster organisational learning, all resolutions of the GC regarding all staff and stakeholders should be highly prioritised. In doing this, the internal and external customer drivers that define the objectives and culture of NIPAM will be considered.

7.5.2 Facilitate Adaptive Organisational Design

To develop into a capable institution, NIPAM should align its strategy which clearly reflects its core mandate and objectives with its organisational structure. It would therefore follow that the policies, processes, information, communication requirements and operations should also be considered during this alignment. To prevent silos and to foster innovation,

it is further recommended that the operational structure should be flat to ensure responsiveness, efficiency and effectiveness. To minimise the management structure, which is currently a key concern, the administrative or support staff should be decreased while increasing professional and training staff.

Furthermore, instead of being structured according to the three sectors, NIPAM should consider revising its structure to reflect its core mandate and purpose. As a result, NIPAM's new structure should develop and cultivate a new generation of public sector managers with enlightened leadership competencies across levels in the public sector. Within the structure, the accountabilities, priorities and measures should be defined and understood explicitly.

For instance, in the HPP and the NDPs, government has prioritised economic progression, social transformation, environmental sustainability and good governance as the pillars of the country's development agenda. NIPAM's research, consultancy and think tank initiatives would therefore, for the duration of the NDP5 period, address the themes across the four pillars which would support the capacity development of public sector officials to meet the targets and initiatives set in the plan. This is linked to the ideal structure that NIPAM ought to have in place to pursue such objectives and serve as government's implementation arm. As explained in chapter three, a flexible structure proposes that administrative staff are also expected to generate revenue in their area of expertise and function (Clark, 2003:108).

At all times, the NIPAM structure with the related staffing required should be filled by people who have academically sound training, have relevant public sector experience and have a proven track record of managing and implementing successful initiatives and projects in their area of expertise. Such a structure would require centres or units that support NIPAM's mandate in strengthening the public sector capabilities in management and leadership as well as the generic functional areas unique to the public sector. To encourage a performance and learning culture, records that illustrate merit should be considered systematically, accurately and transparently.

The structure should also be flexible enough to contract subject experts or the resource pool who are able to present training, provide consultancy services and conduct research. Part of the flexibility and adaptability of such an arrangement for NIPAM would provide the organisation with the freedom to collaborate with strategic partners. Staff rotation should be considered, especially in terms of the exchange of staff from partner organisations based on competencies and NDP reviews and changes.

In terms of the challenge of decentralising NIPAM's services, the establishment of training hubs through collaboration with strategic partners is possible. For example, NIPAM could, in collaboration with the University of Namibia, through the MoU, share venues which could be centres for NIPAM's training delivery. NIPAM thus has to be charged with determining the optimal relationship with strategic partners and key stakeholder groups of subnational governments.

7.5.3 Provide Responsive Services

As indicated in chapter four, there are several role players in the HRD environment – both across Namibia and in the public sector specifically. As a coordinator, NIPAM should embark on a study to evaluate and analyse which organisations are responsible for which services in order to avoid duplication and to address the gaps. It stands to reason that NIPAM should not duplicate what other institutions are already covering.

In terms of the mode of delivery, and moving away from a one-size-fits-all approach, NIPAM should devise and develop an operational plan, given the variety and level of clientele across the public sector. This plan should establish and provide information on the relevant products, services, venues, clients and levels. Issues regarding the delivery of training and the quality assurance of programmes have been discussed in chapters five and six. In terms of evaluating the programmes, the training evaluation feedback should highlight and emphasise the use of innovative but also practical training methods, resources, knowledge and skills that have been acquired through training. Ultimately, the job performance of those who have attended the programmes and courses should be linked to the improvement of work performance in the long term. Elaborating on NIPAM's

approach, training should be positioned as transformational and should apply experiential learning principles and approaches. The capacity development interventions should lead to competency-based NIPAM certificates and the requisite skills to perform at a particular level and functional area in view of improved service delivery. Such certificates are to be recognised by O/M/As, SOEs as well as RCs and LAs.

Linking the issue of providing training according to needs, reports and feedback to clientele organisations should feature the training needs in all evaluation reports. These evaluation criteria, description of resources, methods and schedules should also be highlighted. Similarly, all evaluation reports should contain all recommendations for post-course counselling, mentoring and coaching and all data collection methods to be utilised to assist with monitoring and measuring impact of training and transfer. All monitoring methods should be mentioned as part of the marketing and communication strategy of a training program while also highlighting the assessment methods and follow-up as part of certification. To ensure that the evaluation is a robust process, the records related to the training systems which include the various stages and processes of the training cycle should be made available as part of the monitoring phase. Finally, constant research, taken from these reports would be encouraged to determine or predict the new demands of clientele.

In terms of access and delivery methods, it is recommended that a range of appropriate delivery methods be used to allow for participation geographically. Through collaborative partnerships such as with UNAM and NUST which have satellite and regional training centres, capacity development needs can be delivered through these centres to reach NIPAM's clientele base. Experience from the case studies highlights the importance of targeting. Part of ensuring efficient and effective delivery on training assumes that issues around time and flexible opportunities to participate in the programmes through e-learning and information and communication technology are targeted and address the needs of those who are geographically dispersed.

As part of effective training delivery, the involvement of stakeholders through collaborative and structured dialogues on work-based and training issues can substantially enhance

training provision. Through these social dialogues and think tank, the various stakeholders and actors in service delivery will be able to define and endorse the contents of programmes and training curricula leading to enhanced capacity development across the public sector. This collaborative approach will assist in reducing irregular and biased information on training costs and benefits, assist the public sector in providing the training supply towards more focused training, and create more equitable training and development opportunities. In as far as the HRD policy for the public service is concerned with addressing inequities in access to learning and training opportunities, and given that many people in the public sector believe that formal qualifications are more beneficial than competency-based or work-orientated learning, the Namibian government is well placed to provide incentives for enrolling in NIPAM training programmes in an attempt to popularise performance improvements in the workplace.

One of the approaches which can be considered is the utilisation of past participants who could serve and act as NIPAM ambassadors to market the usefulness of NIPAM's competency-based programmes. Part of NIPAM's coordination responsibility also provides it with the mandate to monitor and provide networking opportunities for all public sector institutions with which NIPAM can share and exchange information on capacity development. This may be seen as worthwhile initiative avenues as NIPAM is able to integrate information and guidance in the Namibian public sector networks (communities of practice) in the capacity development arena. In line with this, NIPAM must establish a think tank forum which will focus on setting new standards, determining best practices and finding solutions to challenges faced by O/M/As, SOEs and RAs and LAs.

7.5.4 Cultivate and Grow Innovative Leadership

Equally problematic is the overmanaged organisation that simply replaces constructive stakeholder participation with autocratic dogmatism. MDIs, like universities experiencing transformation, have been known to require strong leadership capable of injecting new energy and ideas and providing guidance in turbulent times (Frost et al., 2015:32). On the flipside, the claim of imposing strong autocratic leadership without the background

knowledge and substance may only result in adopting a particular direction without the necessary checks and balances.

7.5.5 Promote Shared Values

On the promotion of shared values, NIPAM will have to evaluate itself properly in order to determine what it is really doing well and on what it should focus. It should consider the advantages and disadvantages of each option and its current and future capacity to deliver on whatever route it chooses. Attention should be paid to its stakeholders and their needs, NIPAM's role in the rest of Africa in pursuit of the Agenda 2063 and other international programmes such as the UN Sustainable Development Goals. In particular, NIPAM will have to carefully consider a number of challenges such as those related to governance, management and leadership development and how this will be implemented across the Namibian public sector and across the AU. It is also critical for NIPAM to determine its role in human resource development and, in particular, whether it should act as a consolidator, coordinator or broker of capacity development. Similarly, it is important to deliberate and decide on whether NIPAM should concentrate only on providing services to the public service (central government) or cast a wider net to include the entire public sector which will include public enterprises and LAs.

7.5.6 Encourage and Nurture Learning Governance

In order to implement public sector-wide learning, there is a need to review and revise all internal policies and systems to enable NIPAM to move towards a system in which there is continuous reflection, monitoring, evaluation and improvement to operationalise organisational learning. To this end, the introduction and institutionalisation of annual self-assessment opportunities as part of the Annual Plan review is highly recommended. This review and reflection exercise will assist NIPAM to determine the extent to which the institution has learnt. In terms of the structure, the role and function of the Human Capital Unit needs to be elevated and staffed so that it can fulfil its role by being a strategic partner to the institute.

Similarly, changes with regard to the culture across NIPAM should reward innovation, emerging ideas and contributions from all corners of the institution. Such initiatives should serve to nurture centres of excellence, give rise to communities of practice and introduce a mindset change from viewing itself as merely a training institution to viewing itself as an institution facilitating learning governance. To this end, there is a need for NIPAM to conduct an impact study on its previous interventions in order to assess the quality of the services and the learning imparted to its clientele groups. In addition, such a study should consider whether the institution has made a difference in transforming the public sector and correspondingly, the internal capacity of NIPAM in the provision of skills and knowledge required for transforming the public sector. The assessment of these aspects will provide an indication of NIPAM's strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats. The institution can reflect on these and operationalise them as future learning opportunities.

Generally, given the resource constraints facing all MDIs, the ideal is that they should be given autonomy over their resources, especially financial resources. To this end, NIPAM should budget appropriately, basing the training offering on actual needs of the public sector in order to accomplish specific capacity development outputs. However, it should be mentioned that in practice, it has not stopped government from cutting NIPAM funding. Therefore, to maintain its autonomy but also in order to account for its activities, funding should be related to outputs through the attainment of targets as well as the strengthening of its governance mechanisms which include controlling, reporting, and auditing systems based on performance indicators.

NIPAM thus needs to know what other service providers are doing and strategise accordingly. Instead of relying on the public service and, in particular, the directive from the Office of the Prime Minister as the custodian office that dedicates it to serve as the primary service provider but should through innovation carve out a niche for itself in the market by competing with similar institutions and, in particular, where others are weak. It should specialise in the training of public sector officials on the policies and framework for improved service delivery, monitoring and evaluation and areas for improved better governance. This calls for continuous environmental scanning and involvement in public

sector issues and challenges to give rise to more action research and development (R&D) on the side of NIPAM, if it is to become a leader. This is a necessary condition for repositioning NIPAM in its quest for excellence by becoming entrepreneurial and innovative.

A more robust and integrated business development strategy focusing not only on new clientele but also on nurturing the relationships between NIPAM's existing clientele is key. To this end, there are suggestions that NIPAM should visit the workplaces of its key stakeholders to study how they operate and design bespoke training courses that are more practical, targeting specific needs. In this regard, it is recommended that NIPAM should visualise the kind of public servant the institution wants to see in the future. In other words, NIPAM should start with the end in mind, i.e. a model of an exemplary public servant. This is perhaps where benchmarking and the introduction of communities of practice across the training and development spectrum would come in handy and would also serve as a way of improving operational performance.

During some of the stakeholder consultation sessions, the need for change management training has been expressed. Such training has been viewed as a neglected area in which plenty of work needed to be done. NIPAM is therefore in a vantage position to devise courses that would equip its stakeholders with competencies for managing change, especially in terms of behaviour. This is consistent with the challenge of poor training transfer, where participants who have undergone training still revert to old ways of doing and do not necessarily apply what they learnt during training. Hence, the suggestion to introduce post-training assessments should also assess the degree of return on investment which should be ensured by human resources offices, linking the training to the performance management system of public sector institutions and the operationalisation of the personal development plans. Part of the strategy would be to involve human resources officers to ensure that the training needs are identified and communicated to NIPAM through the Department of Planning and Human Resources Development as opposed to leaving it to NIPAM.

However, the non-application of newly acquired knowledge and skills mentioned earlier may be interpreted as pointing to the need to investigate the factors hindering application of newly acquired skills and knowledge. This could be achieved through a scientific approach, possibly through conducting empirical, evidence-based research instead of taking decisions based on allegations and whims. Again, this is an area where NIPAM could generate business with respect to conducting research. A huge body of research dealing with this issue already exists which might give NIPAM some pointers as to what it could do differently to succeed against its competitors.

To further strengthen NIPAM's responsive services, NIPAM should align theory with practice. Apparently, what the stakeholders read about training courses offered by NIPAM (theory) and what actually happens in practice are worlds apart. This seems to point to what is known as the theory-practice gap, which is not unique to NIPAM. NIPAM has been urged to close this gap, thereby aligning what it says it does with what it actually does. Similarly, NIPAM should make its presence felt in government. As indicated in the previous sections, NIPAM, like many other MDIs on the continent, operates on the periphery of government and the wider public sector. It was felt that the institution is not well known in many parts of government. The use of different media are suggested through which NIPAM's service could be advertised, including through the national broadcaster and local radio stations.

NIPAM should also harness the power of e-learning in providing services. This suggestion has emerged from various evaluation data and has been recommended as an antidote to the situation whereby some stakeholders are taken away from their workstations for a long period of time to attend training. There have also been various appeals requesting NIPAM to improve its ICT capabilities and to establish a stronger ICT centre to address problems facing the government in this field. As such, NIPAM can assist government in the following areas: supporting government in the use of social media and harnessing the power of information technology; monitoring, evaluating and reporting using ICT; conducting records management; and doing human capital management. These are all issues which require whole-of-government approaches and their integration through the use of ICT systems requires not only popularising and awareness raising but also training to utilise these

systems. Sometimes the problems experienced require simple solutions but since there is lack of know-how, the public sector is sometimes compelled to hire other service providers. Similarly, in the move towards being more client-centred, NIPAM should decentralise its services and offer services where they are required.

7.6 Conclusion

In conclusion, NIPAM is the articulation of the Namibian government's dream of having an integrated and unified public sector that is ready to respond in time and appropriately to the changes in the democratic environment and continue to mortgage Namibia as the most peaceful and most stable country on the African continent. With the adoption of Agenda 2063 and the role of capacity development to advance this continental dream, NIPAM is poised to be the national training hub for progressive and national development-oriented public service in the SADC region and beyond.

The view is held that this study could serve as groundwork for high-level strategic discussions. Consideration should be given to circulating the recommendations to key opinion leaders and stakeholders not only across the Namibian public sector but also regionally and internationally for inputs regarding the utilisation of this information. In particular, there should be discussions around the key recommendations made in this study. These discussions should be contextualised to the particular country and public sector. All individuals contributing towards the discussions should be encouraged to be creative and innovative. It is further proposed and recommended that MDIs focus on the alignment of their respective strategies, structures, systems, leadership style, staff, competencies and organisational culture as diverse but integrated parts of an organisation in its entirety. It must, however, be noted that such an arrangement is also affected by the external environment which is shaped by extraneous variables such as policy changes and the development agenda which affect the manner in which public sector organisations respond.

Hence, in order for NIPAM to effectively carry out its mandate, there is a need for the institute to work towards supporting the realisation of a knowledge economy so that public

sector officials are able to anticipate challenges and turn them into opportunities towards generating new knowledge and innovative practices in service delivery. This is necessary to instil a learning governance culture given that the environment changes all the time and that in order to be efficient and effective, role players in the public sector should be able to utilise new knowledge and competition.

Internationally, MDIs have unique services to sell. If, however, the services are not defined, there will be challenges. As services continuously change in terms of emerging needs, MDIs should possess the key competencies which their employees require and they should offer specific qualifications. Linking in with the initial proposition for an MDI to function as a capable institution, there are key competencies focused on core public administration competencies, such as policy analysis, formulation and implementation. In particular, to be considered relevant, their services should explicitly focus on how the public sector operates and, importantly, on the rationale for bureaucratic organisations and systems thinking and the need to advance both the public good and enhance public trust.

These are skills which have been receiving attention as evident with the UK Civil Service Learning and now with the National School of Government in South Africa. At the same time, it is worthwhile to consider developing detailed public sector management and leadership competencies which MDIs must transfer to participants. These competencies are unique competency sets of a future-focused public servant which are generic, such as computer literacy, but at the same time are unique to the public sector. Examples of sets that are unique to the public sector include the following: the preparation of cabinet submissions and memoranda; mainstreaming gender and development; policy analysis, development and implementation; and national development planning, monitoring and reporting. The assumption is that for MDIs to be relevant and needed, they must deliver these services with excellence. Much of this depends on their ability to attract and retain the right calibre of staff with the right competencies.

Finally, although the legal bias prevails in terms of the content of many of the training programmes delivered by these institutions, they have also become more interdisciplinary to include policy-oriented issues, leadership development, and soft skills such as

emotional and cross-cultural intelligence to increase relevance. At the same time, continuous professional development (CPD) to enhance professionalism is becoming more important. Different training delivery approaches to advance lifelong learning call for more systematic, regular and intensive interventions which correspond to the various phases of an individual's need for professional development compared to a single training course which is attended by individuals at the start or middle of their careers in the public sector. Thus, it becomes even more important for MDIs to strengthen their role in capacity evaluation to assess the overall impact of training in relation to the employee life cycle which may indicate pre-entry qualification and capacity requirements plus subsequent investments made towards professional development

Given the similarities in operational programme designs and expected outcomes as well as in the schools of thought of such training initiatives, MDIs should ideally begin collaborating to further their efforts through the sharing of capacity and organisational resources, the promotion of common undertakings, the development of e-learning and m-learning, distance education, and the elaboration of best practices in training and development work. By doing this, a learning governance approach would be cultivated and begin to develop, adapt and grow – first across regions and later the world.

With regard to the governance of MDIs, it has been concluded that this is a multilevel and multifaceted undertaking. Being established by the governments under which they resort, they have adopted the status of not only being subsidised by the state. Following this, they are expected to become entrepreneurial in their operations. In an attempt to be relevant and at the same time become self-sustainable, they need to reposition themselves in a move towards expanding their services into competitive environments. Hence, the adoption of the ALO Model of Learning Governance may be one of the initial steps towards repositioning NIPAM in terms of the external environment, competitors, internal dynamics and institutional setup in view of the public sector's developmental agenda towards the implementation of the socio-political economic goals, policies and programmes of Namibia. The case studies outlined in this study have critically examined the multidimensional outcomes of changing governance approaches and illustrate that no one approach or model can be followed. MDIs by definition are highly complex systems

and are expected to be knowledge-based organisations. Hence, their strategies, organisational designs, services, values and leadership should be responsive to a variety of diverse demands from both inside and outside the organisation.

Future research should therefore focus on the impact and consequences of managed and coordinated capacity development efforts and different policy approaches for the public sector. To this end, a multilevel analysis is proposed. Such an analysis entails the following: firstly, the level of the MDI which involves its own context, unique set of role players and governance structure and the extent to which learning governance is adopted and implemented; secondly, the broader country context and its reform agenda; and, thirdly, the level of the public sector officials requiring capacity development in the public sector and their respective institutional contexts.

Future studies could also focus on how MDIs have affected the reconfiguration and impact of policy decisions, strategic choices and structures, and the future behaviours and competencies of previous participants. Shedding more light on these issues and developing sustainable policy measures are crucial for the future governing practices of MDIs and consequently for their usefulness and relevance to the public sector and society at large.

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Appendix 1: Breakdown of Costs 2010–2017

	2017/2016	2016/2015	2015/2014	2014/2013	2013/2012	2012/2011	2011/2010
Cafeteria	3 491 860	985 790	1 271 360	1 208 202	2 054 337	244 200	18 400
Hiring of facilities	695 057	204 624	282 604	284 038	613 232	459 140	87 575
Consulting	2 597 826	31 200	464 682	1 741 004	381 782	0	0
Interest received	3 302 235	5 329 400	3 900 757	1 506 588	379 199	439 645	115 514
Profit of disposal	685 414	59 073	0	0	0	0	0
Training fees	7 385 302	11 823 659	7 549 258	5 477 096	4 715 184	4 864 691	96 310
	18 157 694	18 433 746	13 468 661	10 216 928	8 143 734	6 007 676	317 799
Cost of Services							
Conferencing fees	4 381 501	2 538 340	2 672 879	1 423 679	3 578 286	875 217	84 311
Depreciation, amortisation, and impairment	5 292 298	4 204 452	4 176 020	3 799 185	3 537 096	2 078 408	973 823
Employee costs	31 932 110	28 210 859	21 601 096	21 375 058	17 895 273	10 116 815	2 850 000
Governing Council fees	821 819	1 387 249	939 069	874 583	1 089 833	858 637	159 712
Supplies and services	15 094 436	15 448 955	7 790 569	8 561 279	5 876 530	5 407 374	1 949 099
Accreditation	129 611	-	-	-	-	-	-
Training costs	2 673 091	5 041 952	4 485 648	3 886 347	4 164 911	3 437 816	655 997
Total cost of services	60 324 866	56 831 807	41 665 281	39 920 131	36 141 929	22 774 267	6 672 942
Net cost of services	42 167 172	38 398 061	28 196 620	29 703 203	27 998 195	16 766 591	6 355 143
Income from Government							
Deferred income released	5 168 720	3 601 611	3 353 205	3 097 234	4 372 704	1 981 673	973 080

	2017/2016	2016/2015	2015/2014	2014/2013	2013/2012	2012/2011	2011/2010
Government grants	23 188 000	-	56 716 161	40 986 000	20 897 000	27 433 000	25 614 929
Total Grant Income	28 356 720	3 601 611	60 069 366	44 083 234	25 269 704	29 414 673	26 588 009
(Deficit)/Surplus for the year	13 810 452	34 796 450	31 872 746	14 380 031	2 728 491	12 648 082	20 232 866

Appendix 2: Open-ended interview questions

1. Could you tell me about your institute?
2. How would you describe the institutional setup?
3. What are the objectives of this institute? What would the programme outcomes seek to address?
4. Who are the participants who attend the training programmes?
5. Would you kindly describe the length of these programmes on average?
6. Tell me about the staff employed here?
7. Besides training and development, what other kinds of activities do this institute embark on?
8. Would you kindly describe the process of designing your learning programmes?
9. Does this institute have a learning philosophy? Would you please tell me about this institute's learning methods?
10. How is this institute funded?
11. To ensure that this institute has credible programmes, can you describe and explain your quality assurance processes (and other systems)?
12. How would you describe this MDI's management/leadership team?
13. When we talk about the governance of this MDI, who is involved? How do they interact?
14. In your opinion, would you describe this MDI as a learning organisation?

List of Individuals I have met and interacted with (grouped by Institution)

Civil Service Learning, UK

(Visits and ongoing exchanges were undertaken during the following timeframes:

30 May – 10 June 2014. Detailed field notes captured.)

Mr Stephen Catchpole, Former NSG Senior Official (2014-2015)

Mr Terry Mills, Former NSG Senior Official (2015)

Mr Nigel Ward, Former NSG Senior Official (2015)

LBSNAA, India

(Visits were undertaken during the following timeframes: 28 May – 10 June 2012;
26 January – 9 February 2016. Detailed field notes captured.)

Mr Tejveer Singh, Joint Director

Mr Padamvir Singh, Joint Director (Administration)

Mr Yatendra Kumar, Deputy Director

Mr Virendra Virodia, Engineer

National School of Government: South Africa

(Visits were undertaken during the following timeframes: 9 December 2014;
7-10 June 2015; 13-16 March 2016. Detailed field notes captured.)

Prof. Solly Mollo, Director General

Prof. Richard Levin, Principal

Ms Mandisa Tshikwatamba, Deputy Director General: Governance and Strategic Support

Mr Mike Welman, Director, International Relations

Mr. Kubele Hlaethwa, Director: Management Accounts

Dr. Fran Greyling, Chief Director: eLearning

Prof Thean Potgieter, Chief Director: Research and Innovation / Acting Branch Head:
Training Policy and Planning

Dr Sal Muthayan, Chief Director : Curriculum Development